The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 27, 1915.

Summary of the News

The long-expected decision of Italy has been made. Following the Cabinet crisis, which we recorded last week, the Chamber of Deputies on May 20, by a vote of 407 to 74, adopted a bill conferring on the Government full powers to make war. The action of the Chamber was confirmed in the Senate on the following day by a vote of 262 to 2. The official Green Book, giving a résumé of the diplomatic negotiations with Austria and confirming the report that the Triple Alliance had been denounced by Italy on May 4, was published on May 20, and a summary of it was given in the New York papers of the following morning. On Saturday of last week martial law was declared in the northern provinces bordering on Austria and in the islands and communes of the Adriatic coast. The formal declaration of war was made on Sunday, as from May 24, the Duke of Avarna, Italian Ambassador to Austria, being instructed to demand his passports.

Warning of the approaching break with Italy was given to the Reichstag on May 18 by the Imperial Chancellor, who communicated a summary of the concessions that had been offered by Austria, and a state of war between Italy and Germany was declared on Sunday. Details of Italy's arrangement with the Allies have not been published, but it is generally supposed that some agreement both as to military coöperation and as to settlement in the event of victory has been reached. It is also considered probable that the entry of Italy into the war will shortly be followed by the participation of Rumania, and that an understanding in case of that event has already been arrived at with Bulgaria.

The governmental crisis in England, it was announced late on Tuesday night, has been settled by the formation of a Coalition Cabinet, in which are included twelve Liberals, eight Unionists, one Labor member (Mr. Arthur Henderson), and Lord Kitchener, who remains as Secretary of State for War. Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey retain their portfolios as Prime Minister and Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. Mr. Lloyd George assumes the newly created post of Minister of Munitions and his place at the Exchequer is taken by Mr. Reginald McKenna. Mr. Balfour goes to the Admiralty in succession to Mr. Winston Churchill, who remains in the Cabinet in the minor position of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. It is now generally admitted that the necessity for a reconstruction of the Cabinet was brought about by the resignation of Lord Fisher as First Sea Lord of the Admiralty as a result of differences that had arisen between him and Mr. Winston Churchill. The original cause of the crisis has, however, been somewhat obscured by a virulent attack on Lord Kitchener, organized by the newspapers (the *Times* and the *Daily Mail*) under the control of the notorious Lord Northcliffe. For once, however, if we may judge by the readiness shown by the decent section, both Liberal and Conservative, of the London press to take up the cudgels on behalf of Lord Kitchener, Lord Northcliffe appears to have overreached himself in his mania for sensationalism.

No trustworthy news can be recorded concerning the probable tenor of the German reply to the American note on the sinking of the Lusitania. Press comment on the note in Germany has been unfavorable to the idea of yielding to the demands made by the United States.

Reports that a note of strong character had already been prepared and was about to be sent to England protesting against the holding up of American cargoes consigned to neutral ports and the delays in adjudicating them were denied by Secretary of State Bryan on May 21. Meanwhile an explanatory memorandum on the subject was issued by the British Foreign Office on May 20 and published in the American papers of the following morning. The memorandum had evidently been prepared some days previously, as it mentioned one ship, the Joseph W. Fordney, as being "at the present moment detained," whereas that vessel, according to information obtained from the owner by the New York *Times*, had sailed from Avonmouth to New York on May 16.

In reply to inquiries by the State Department concerning the sending of the case of the William P. Frye before a German prize court at Hamburg, Ambassador Gerard on Monday cabled the explanation that the proceedings before the prize court were not intended as a reply to the American note on the matter, but were necessitated under German law and were wholly independent of diplomatic negotiations.

Announcement was made on Tuesday that the Government of the Netherlands had sent a note to Germany protesting against the sinking of the Lusitania, in which the lives of several Dutch subjects were lost.

German submarines, since the notable emprise which shocked the world on May 7, have relaxed, but by no means abandoned their activities. Two British steamships and one sailing vessel, three British trawlers, one Norwegian steamer, and one French steam trawler represent the "bag" during the past week.

On May 19 a bill was introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies by M. Ribot, Minister of Finance, providing for a supplementary appropriation of $220,000,000 for the first six months of the present year, this in addition to an appropriation of $1,700,000,000 already voted.

Announcement was made on Monday from Buenos Ayres that the Governments of Argentina, Brazil, and Chili had signed a five-year treaty binding them to submit all differences among them to an international commission, and providing that no one of the three countries should declare war against another prior to a conclusion of an investigation by the commission. Secretary Bryan in a statement on Monday ridiculed the suggestion that the compact could be construed in any sense as an act of unfriendliness towards the United States.

The Pan-American Financial Conference was opened in Washington on Monday with an address of welcome by the President.

Comment will be found elsewhere on the rulings of Justice McCoy in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, on May 21, in the case of the Riggs Bank.

In the libel suit for $50,000 brought by William Barnes, jr., against Theodore Roosevelt, the jury, on Saturday of last week, after being out for over forty-two hours, returned a verdict for the defendant.

The second conviction of Charles Becker, ex-Police Lieutenant, for instigating the murder of Herman Rosenthal, the New York gambler, was upheld by the Court of Appeals on Tuesday.

The revolution in Portugal appears to have been completely successful and the country to be quiescent. The place as Prime Minister of Senhor Joao Chagas, who is recovering from the attempt made to assassinate him, has been taken by José de Castro, who, in a statement given to the Associated Press on May 21, announced that the aim of the movement was to restore the Constitution, and that it had been inspired by dissatisfaction with the supine policy of the late Government towards the German invasion of Portuguese Africa and by its complacent attitude towards anarchists.

In reply to questions asked in the Japanese Diet on May 22 as to why Japan kept secret the fifth group of the demands she made on China, Baron Kato, Minister of Foreign Affairs, replied that, while Japan believed that she was justified in demanding the concessions contained in the first four groups, the fifth group did not represent demands but rather hopes, and there was therefore no necessity to communicate it. In regard to the restoration of Kiao-chau to China Baron Kato said that this was not an incident of the negotiations, but had been decided on long before these were undertaken. So long as no other country than China held Kiao-chau Japan was satisfied. The new treaty between China and Japan was signed on Tuesday.

The worst train wreck in the history of British railways occurred on May 22 on the Caledonian Railway at Gretna Green, Scotland, when three trains came into collision. One was a troop train, and of the 158 dead or missing all but six are said to have been soldiers. The injured number more than two hundred. The great loss of life was due to fire following the collision.

The deaths of the week include: Judge Walter Malone, Dr. Amos W. Barber, May 18; Thomas H. Hubbard, May 19; Alberto Carlos Sanchez, May 21; James R. Ely, May 23; Jacob Ruppert, Ex-Justice Emlin McClain, May 25.

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The Week

The present Conference of the American Republics at Washington differs from preceding meetings in the definiteness of its programme. Underlying all the discussion and fraternizing, there is, of course, recognition of the same general objects that have been in the minds of delegates to the preceding gatherings; namely, the firmer establishment of peace and good-will among all the nations represented, and the encouragement of closer commercial relations among them. But the question that is to the fore in this week's assemblage is finance: the Conference specifically terms itself a Pan-American Financial Conference. One innovation from which much is expected was touched upon on Monday by Mr. Vanderlip and by Charles S. Hamlin on Tuesday. The Federal Reserve Act has made it possible for national banks to establish foreign branches. Advantage of this provision has been taken by the National City Bank of New York city, which since the beginning of the war has started a branch at Buenos Ayres. Mr. Vanderlip sees vast possibilities in the direction of our furnishing capital to the countries south of us. Whether his estimate of $3,000,000,000 as available for loans upon the basis of our present banking reserves is accurate or not, it is evident that we are looking at the matter of providing capital for these countries in a new light. There may be skepticism—there is skepticism—as to how far we can go in this direction. One of the delegates to the Conference said in so many words a few days ago that he was inclined to think that the United States had not, and was not likely to have soon, any very large masses of capital for foreign purposes. But a series of branch banks at strategical spots are bound to have an influence that cannot be measured by the number of dollars they are able to lend. Merely as a sign of a new and more serious interest on our part in the countries concerned, they would, especially under existing conditions and for some time to come, convey a message more powerful than that carried by any diplomat whom we might send on another speech-making tour.

President Wilson's recurrence, in his address in Washington on Monday to the South American delegates, to the plan of Government ships, will prompt many to say that he is a very obstinate man. The project beaten once he still clings to. But this is the same sort of thing that President Roosevelt did, in the matter of his railway bill, for example, and in his case it was called, not obstinacy, but admirable persistence. All depends upon the merits of the particular measure. Mr. Wilson has undoubtedly a very determined streak in him, but he has also a great deal of mental flexibility. His language about ships for the South American trade is susceptible of another meaning than the one generally given to it. He may intend it as another urgent appeal to private capital to bestir itself. If so, it would be like Mr. Root's famous warning to the States that if they did not set their corporations in order, the Federal Government would do it over their heads. The President would clearly prefer to have shipping lines established purely on a business basis. Indeed, after he had spoken, a committee was appointed to study the whole question and see if commercial interests may not meet the need by themselves. Behind this still stands, of course, Mr. Wilson's assertion that if individual enterprise does not solve the problem, the Government will have to tackle it. But we need not point out that this would be only another way of saying that the whole thing is certain to be a losing venture. If there is an assured profit in it, private capital will be forthcoming. But if there are large sums to be sunk in it, then by all means let the Government—meaning the taxpayers—find the money.

The stock phrases of diplomacy sometimes do have a meaning, since once in a while it will happen that the facts correspond with the formula. In the course of his tour of the South American capitals, Dr. Lauro Muller, Brazilian Foreign Minister, has made it plain that his object is to bring about a defensive alliance of the three principal nations, Brazil, Argentina, and Chili. "Our mission," said Dr. Muller at Santiago last week, "is primarily one of peace, but it is also one of preparation to defend ourselves against unjust attack." The face of a venerable friend apparently smiles upon us in this alliance for defence against unjust attack. We know what "just" defence has done for Europe. But in South America it is plain that defence cannot take on the sinister meaning which it has won in Europe. South America cannot conceivably attack anybody, and we must assume that the A B C states are sincere when they speak of defending themselves against attack. By whom? By any one, the answer would be. Yet if anything is certain, it is that no world-Power will be in the mood or the position to attack South America for many, many years to come. So that the movement towards an alliance, while honestly "defensive" in intention, is really not so much defensive or offensive, not so much of significance for South America's foreign relations as for her domestic affairs. Its first result will be increased harmony and coöperation among the most progressive and prosperous of the Latin nations, and as such the alliance deserves every chance to succeed.

An official German publication about the atrocities in Belgium has the air of attempting to prove that they were committed by the Belgians! It is not quite that, of course, but the whole stress of the document is upon the firing on German troops by civilians, together with other forms of unmilitary attack. The charge is renewed, which the Kaiser first made but afterwards withdrew, that even Belgian priests were guilty of fiendish personal cruelties to German soldiers. And there is much else about the *francs-tireurs* which the German armies encountered in so many places in Belgium. That the Belgians resorted frequently to this form of resistance has not been denied. There was no need of this new massing of German proof. But concerning it there are two obvious remarks to make. One is that its compilation and publishing by the German Government is a tacit confession that barbarities were practiced by the Germans in Belgium. What we have now offered us is the provocation. And the inference is that it was huge enough to justify the most savage reprisals. The latter stand, in the act, admitted. But the further comment is that there is no attempt to show that the German punishment did not exceed all bounds in its ferocity. Granting, for example, that a few shots were fired upon the Germans entering Louvain, did that fact justify the utter destruction of the town and the university, in a way to horrify the world and make the Kaiser's heart bleed? That is a question to which the German White Book makes no answer.

The story of how the Belgian Commission has supported a people requiring $65,000,000 in food supplies with but $10,000,000 in foreign contributions does equal credit to the financial resourcefulness of Mr. Hoover and his associates and to the recuperative power of the small kingdom. The English press has consistently asserted that it is not the generosity of Americans for which Belgium should be most grateful, but the Commission's organizing genius. The dispatches show how huge was its problem. It was nec-

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essary to utilize the credit of a population deprived of all metallic and almost all paper currency; to do a systematic banking business across enemy lines—remaining the only institution carrying one on; and it had so to organize its charity that the destitute in Belgium should be aided by their own countrymen. Its direct efficiency is attested by the fact that by careful purchases, the chartering of ships, and the substitution of volunteer effort for middlemen it has kept the price of bread in Belgium below that in London, and yet made $6,000,000 profit on its sales. The scope of its work is shown by the dependence of the communes upon it for money to pay their officers, teachers, and social agents, and to keep up their normal activities. This country has had reason to be proud of the initiative and ability of its Ambassadors, Ministers, and Consuls in solving the problems thrust upon them by the war; in the Belgian Commission it has been served by a display of American practical resourcefulness fully as great.

The upflare of criticism against Lord Kitchener is in part what the Liberal press describes it, a set attack by Lord Northcliffe's newspapers for partisan purposes. Having found the enemy—that is, the Liberal Government—on the run, the assault which began with Churchill has extended all along the line. Probably, there would have been no attack by Northcliffe if all had gone well with the British campaigns on land. It may very well be that Kitchener has partly failed to measure up to his task, in which respect he shares the fate that has overtaken leaders in other nations. If there is one thing an ambitious military leader or administrator should desire at the beginning of a war, it is that the post of honor should go to his dearest rival. This rival may be counted on to commit the inevitable errors that mark the beginning of nearly every war, and then to make room for some one else who will profit by his errors. No nation has been spared this experience. The Kaiser was compelled to change his chief of staff; the Austrian generals who led the armies at the outbreak of hostilities are in retirement; the men who began the war for France are not the men who now dictate policies; in Russia by this time the reputation of the Grand Duke Nicholas is not what it might be. It would have been odd if Kitchener had escaped the common experience; all the more odd because his task was enormous. For to him fell more than the task of handling a ready machine, as with the Continental armies. Kitchener had to build his machine under fire. The mistake he has made consists primarily in assuming more responsibilities than it was humanly possible for him to justify.

Whatever the degree of blame that must rest upon Austria for bringing on the war, her position throughout the negotiations with Italy has been almost pitiful. It was always Austria that had to make concessions, to offer to give up parts of her own territory. Pulled by Italy and pushed by Germany, the Austrian Government must have felt itself in a most unhappy situation. It was as if there were a sharp recurrence of the historic attrition by which Austrian possessions in what was once Italy have been worn away. For the aged Emperor of Austria, it is on old story. In his lifetime he has seen nearly the whole process. And many times during his reign has the question come up of Austria's yielding something to Italy. A writer in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* recalls the Italian mission of which Gen. Türr was the head in 1866, and which visited Vienna after getting encouragement in Paris. Then, too, it was mainly the surrender of the Trentino that was asked. Francis Joseph saw the Italian General, but returned him a pretty strong negative. "Must it always be I," he asked, "who has to give?" That question he may well be asking to-day with plaintive force.

Although the Government's summary of nine months of foreign trade, ending with March, published last week, shows that more of aniline dyes, indigoes, and raw dyeing materials were imported than during the corresponding period in 1913-14, a simultaneous report to Secretary Redfield is discouraging. A dozen manufactures already feel the scarcity, and by August, if the blockade continues, our reserves will have disappeared completely. The imminence of such a shortage lends great interest to the efforts of the chemical industries to solidify sentiment in favor of changes in the Clayton Act whereby unfair trade practices carried on by firms outside the United States may be properly penalized. It has been stated in manufacturing circles that if this measure of Federal protection can be guaranteed, the investment in American dye works will grow from $4,000,000 to perhaps $20,000,000. A speculative basis for this exists in the fact that anilines which a year ago sold at 10 cents per pound now sell at $1 or $1.25. The natural fear is that the close of the war will witness an attempt by the $400,000,000 German industry to crush the new American competition by flooding our markets with dyes sold more cheaply than they are offered in Europe. Germany's legal protection of price agreements and other combinations would assist such a move. The Administration, through Secretary Redfield, may find it possible to promise to urge an extension of the Clayton Act.

The results to date of the hearing in the injunction suit of the Riggs National Bank of Washington, D. C., against the officers of the United States Treasury, have hardly vindicated the wisdom of the bank in bringing such a suit. The case was one in which intelligent public opinion was divided as to whether the Controller of the Currency had or had not directed irritating and discriminatory measures against the bank, in the way of Government supervision. There had seemed to be something of a personal element in the policy thus pursued, and both the public and the court showed willingness to suspend judgment pending the evidence. But in a case of this nature, especially when brought against the Government, it is vitally necessary for himself that the plaintiff should come into court with absolutely clean hands. The judge, after considering all the several petitions of the bank, has granted a temporary injunction in one somewhat technical matter: the imposition of a fine. But he refuses to grant even a temporary injunction against the calling for further special reports by the Treasury, or against "interfering or meddling" with the bank's affairs. In denying these requests, the Court declares that the allegation of bad faith on the part of the Treasury has not been proved, and that the Treasury's counter-allegation of persistent violation of the banking law by the bank itself has been proved. The least that can be said, by people who have read the testimony intelligently and impartially, is that the bank and its attorneys showed a strange lack of understanding of the position in which their own admissions would place them in such a controversy.

The outcome of the trial at Syracuse has been, broadly speaking, what was generally expected from the beginning, and what has seemed almost certain from an early stage in the trial. That Barnes could get substantial damages in the face of the evidence presented by Mr. Roosevelt in justification seemed out of the question; there was room for practical doubt only as to the completeness with which the jury might dismiss the charge of libel as baseless. Some trace of

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incompleteness has been shown by the eleven-to-one controversy in the jury; but the Colonel has reason to be sufficiently well pleased with his victory. On Barnes's political future the revelations of the trial ought to put a complete extinguisher; and the impression at Albany appears to be very strong that it will do so. As for Mr. Roosevelt, while he comes off very well so far as Barnes is concerned, the record at Syracuse brings out in black-and-white and will preserve permanently and in accessible shape exhibits of his own political standards which it will be anything but agreeable for him to face when next he raises his banner.

Entirely irrespective of the merits of the Colorado affair, either as a whole or as regards the position of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, jr., Chairman Walsh's manner of conducting the hearings of the Industrial Relations Commission has been offensive and absurd. Washington dispatches state that some of the members of the Commission last Thursday addressed to him a letter demanding a change in his methods. Surely such a step is no more than their own self-respect requires. Whether viewed as a question of ordinary decency in the manner of conducting a serious official inquiry, or as a question of efficiency in attaining a result of any value for the labors of the Commission, there is but one judgment that can be pronounced on Walsh's performances. If he were engaged in producing "copy" for a yellow journal, his way of working Colorado "for all it is worth" as a source of sensational stage-play might be just what his employers desired; but the people of the United States have not sunk to that condition. Mr. Rockefeller may be as guilty and as wicked as Walsh thinks, or professes to think; but persons who are not already of that opinion will not be brought over to it by reading the account of the irresponsible and preposterous badgering to which he is being subjected by Chairman Walsh.

Ex-Gov. Foss of Massachusetts announces himself as a candidate for the Republican nomination for Governor upon the single issue of nation-wide prohibition. Unlike Mr. Bryan, he acts and does not merely issue a pronunciamento. The Secretary of State, to be perfectly sincere, ought to support in 1916 a Presidential candidate who imitates Mr. Foss, or failing so excellent a candidate, run on a prohibition platform himself. This latter is within the bounds of possibility for Foss also, since, if the Republicans will have none of him, he may turn to the Prohibitionists—or they to him. Yet it was a short three years ago that his campaign manager was whispering to any one who would listen that the nomination at Baltimore was certain to drop into the lap of ex-Gov. Foss—who now calls himself a Republican. Bitter contests for a few ballots, a deadlock—and then Eugene Noble Foss. But politics laughs at logic or even probabilities, as is illustrated in the fact that Foss's decision to run is the result of Charles Sumner Bird's refusal to raise the standard. In other words, a Progressive leader invites a Democrat to become a Republican candidate for Governor upon an issue that, if it exists at all, is not State but national. If this happened in Kansas, the Bay State would smile.

If an American were asked to name, say, half a dozen of the most remarkable spots in his country, the chances are very small that he would include Rochester, Minn., in the list. And yet that little town might make out a very good claim to the distinction, if either uniqueness or beneficence of achievement were taken as the test. The surgical work of the brothers Mayo has been of amazing quality, and the great institution which they have built up without the aid of any endowment has, we believe, not another like it anywhere in the world. And now comes the statement that these brilliant but unostentatious workers, who have combined in so rare a way the genius for surgery and the genius for organization, are about to devote the large sum of two million dollars, fruit of their life-long labors and extraordinary success, to the endowment of a great institute of medicine which is to form part of the University of Minnesota. To have made the name of an obscure little Northwestern town a familiar word among the great lights of medicine and surgery in London and Paris and Berlin, to have been the means of saving thousands of lives and of averting an untold amount of pain and anguish by their own labors and that of their assistants—this was ground for satisfaction such as is granted to few men; and now to all this is added the knowledge that, through a wise and generous disposition of the pecuniary reward that has come to them, similar benefits will be conferred on their fellow-men in generation after generation.

Inter arma, Canadian politics still remains of great interest. The storm which forced out the Conservative Premier of Manitoba a week ago, after his own admission of negligence, and that brewing in British Columbia, where it is charged that "immense areas of the choicest lands have been stolen from the people," are important in themselves. But they are chiefly of note as affecting the national situation. Whereas the Borden Government, after threatening a "khaki" election in June, and sending forward the soldiers' ballots, had based its postponement upon a desire not to offend patriotic sentiment, the Liberals may now charge that it is moved chiefly by the fact that in the West it might suffer severely in a general election. There may be little in this, and yet the Government has undoubtedly laid itself open by its too clever scheme of taking advantage of the war to have itself retained in office. There has plainly been a Conservative fear that if dissolution is delayed to next year and the war ends, the party will be defeated on the score of the scandals in supplies. It is now certain that there will be no election before autumn.

Should Italy decide to assume the offensive on her northern frontier, her attack is more likely to be directed eastward in the direction of Triest than north against the mountain barriers of the Trentino. In a campaign against Triest the Italian armies would concentrate in the Venetian plain for the purpose of forcing the line of the Isonzo. Only after the passage of the river would mountain fighting come into play, and that for a distance of twenty-odd miles before Triest is reached. In such an advance the Italian forces would be served by two lines of railway from Venice to Triest, the southern line by way of Mestre and Portogruaro, the northern line by way of Treviso and Udine, the distances being 100 miles by the southern route and 140 miles by the northern route. The advantages offered by Triest as objective are obvious. The natural obstacles are much less formidable than in the Trentino; the enemy's forces operating in this region are likely to be Austrian, whereas the Trentino, because of its proximity to Germany, is likely to be defended by the much more efficient Bavarians; the defence of Triest, with its enormously preponderant Italian population, must accentuate the difficulties of the Austrian problem. Finally, the Italian navy can be brought into the campaign. Undoubtedly, Triest has been fortified towards the sea by mines and submarines, but with the Austrian fleet already locked up in Pola by the British and French fleets, the Italian naval attack may develop sufficient strength to threaten Triest seriously from the sea.

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ITALY AND THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

The Italian Government is not only making history to-day: it is furnishing new knowledge of past history. By publishing the dispatches which have passed between Rome and Vienna, it is giving to the world a better understanding than we have before had of the exact nature of the Triple Alliance. It is something like a secret article of a secret treaty that Italy now makes public. Without quoting this article except by number, the Green Book makes it clear that Italy had a technical case for "compensation." That is to say, if either Austria or Germany took steps to aggrandize herself, Italy was to be entitled to territorial enlargements. The direct assertion is made that the attack of Austria upon Servia brought this secret agreement into play. Accordingly, the Italian Government at once began to press the Austrian for the "compensations" due. At first, the Austrian Foreign Minister denied that Italy had a case; but finally—it may be under German tutelage—he admitted the force of the Italian contention, and began the long and rather sordid negotiation over terms. This has now broken down. The haggling is at an end. Italy has declared the Triple Alliance no longer binding upon her, and holds her hand free to make war upon her former allies.

These disclosures put us for the first time in possession of what may be called Italy's standing in court. We see now, as we could not before, the technical, legal basis for her proceedings. She had a lawful claim under the treaty with Austria and Germany. This she has been pressing for months; and now, after she has failed to get as much as she wanted, she merely breaks the matter short, accuses Austria of not living up to treaty obligations, and writes her declaration of war. The world has long been wondering what ostensible *casus belli* Italy could find. Now we know. She can point to the Triple Alliance and affirm that the rights accorded her by it have not been respected. This, of course, is a purely legalistic justification. It does not go to the moral bearings of the case. In impartial eyes, it will not make Italy's position glorious or even handsome. She has to-day too much the appearance of having invited bids for her support in the war, and of having finally gone where the highest price was offered. That her statesmen have displayed great skill throughout the crisis, must be admitted. They gained the delay necessary to arm, at the same time that they took up the work of shaping Italian opinion, and kept the Powers in doubt. Finally, in most dramatic fashion, they forced the hand of the King and spiked the guns of the once dominant Giolitti. If the war goes well, and Italian dreams are realized, the names of Salandra and Sonnino will be placed alongside Cavour's. Yet even so the friends of Italy in neutral countries cannot help regretting that, in all this business, she has not stood more erect before the world.

As for the now defunct Triple Alliance itself, it was always an unnatural alliance, so far as Italy was concerned. She may have found her account in it, especially by obtaining a freer hand in Africa than she would otherwise have had; but it remained for her, as it did for Austria, a strange wedding of incompatibilities. Italy was taken into the Triple Alliance only because Russia withdrew from the *Dreikaiserbund*. Bismarck was always perfectly frank about this. And he never concealed his cynicism in regard to the position which Italy might take in case of war. His hopes hardly went beyond an Italian demonstration on the French frontier. But to-day she is across the frontier in the embrace of France! There is a passage in Bismarck's Reminiscences in which he comes pretty near to foreseeing the actual situation to-day. He thought it probable that, one day, Austria and Germany would have to face Russia and France in arms. In case Italy were to be loyal to the Alliance, there need be no great fear. But Bismarck added that there was ever a possibility that ancient national animosities and ambitions might be stirred in Italy, and that she might make war upon Austria in a struggle for the control of the Adriatic. In that event, Bismarck recorded the opinion that the fight would be "unequal" for Austria and Germany. What would he have thought with England added to the list of Germany's enemies!

The end of the Triple Alliance was assured before Italy formally "denounced" it on May 4. The brains were out of it long ago. Its extinction was certain two months after the war broke out. Whatever the outcome of the conflict, the old alignment of the European nations could not persist. Yet there is an inevitable sense of melancholy in witnessing this downfall of the whole fabric reared by Bismarck. What a comment on the futility of statesmanship even when most far-sighted! Especially bitter must be the disappointment at this failure of what was so long hailed as the sure guarantee of peace. Boastings on that score were no more common at the meetings of the three monarchs of the Triple Alliance than at the conferences between the Czar of Russia and the President of the French Republic, with their iteration of the phrase, "la paix est assurée." We begin to understand better now what Sir Edward Grey meant when he warned the Kaiser last July of the "incalculable consequences" of war. Yet there are gentlemen in nearly every street-car, certainly in every club—also, we admit, in some newspaper offices—who are confidently remaking the map of Europe and reading in oracular fashion the book of fate. The events we are witnessing reinforce the humble conclusion of the poet: "Sometimes I think 'twere best to leave the Lord alone."

A "PEOPLE'S WAR."

Italy's vote for war is unquestionably popular in that country. This was as certain before the action of her Parliament as it was after. It is clear that nothing but the tremendous demonstrations in the chief Italian cities solved the governmental crisis of last week. As it was put bitterly by the Rome correspondent of a Berlin newspaper, "the street has won." The parading and shouting masses overcame Giolitti's intrigue, and forced the King to retain Salandra in office—the Prime Minister who had already made up his mind to war with Austria. And now the enthusiasm, both in the Chamber and outside of it, witnesses to the fact that the assent of the great body of the Italian people is given to the fateful decision. There is undeniably astir the powerful national sentiment which led Mrs. Browning to exclaim, nearly sixty years ago:

> Arise with a shout,
> Nation of Italy!

If Italy is making a "people's war," it must not be forgotten that all the leading combatant nations are doing the same. The spirit of union and uttermost devotion that now animates the people of France is cavilled at by none. Signs that Englishmen are both roused and united as not before for two generations are thick on the English horizon. And it is equally evident that the Germans are bracing themselves for their great effort in the strong conviction that all their people are as of one mind about the struggle. Indeed, recent correspondence from the German army emphasizes the way in which the war has become more popular than ever. What is meant is that its control and direction have measurably passed from the hands of the military caste. Thousands of the old-time haughty and overbearing officers have been killed. They have been replaced by men of quieter and more

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sympathetic bearing. The Junker spirit is abating, so the correspondents assert, and the feeling intensifying that the mighty task of war is laid upon the entire German people.

About all these appearances in the various fighting nations there is something factitious and misleading. It may be true that each one is now united and determined, yet this does not prove that the war was directly caused by an overmastering popular movement. Not even in Italy was this so. Ferrero has admitted that during the early months of the war the dominant sentiment of the Italian people was in favor of neutrality. It took time to work up the fervor that is now manifested. And the fact is plain that the real decision was made by the Italian Government. The nation was committed without being formally consulted. The final going before Parliament was little but an empty form. It was the Ministry, acting on its own responsibility, that had denounced the treaty of the Triple Alliance as no longer binding on Italy; the Ministry that had rejected the latest and enlarged Austrian offers; the Ministry that had at the last moment raised the spectre of possible revolution to wring acquiescence from the King and to create a Parliamentary situation out of which there could be but one issue—war.

Realities like these, lying behind appearances, must be borne in mind when we are tempted to talk loosely about a "people's war." After the event, yes; but before it the question is one of leaders. If they are astute, they can, in these days of democracy, make themselves seem to be only the servants of the popular will. Nor does it ever or anywhere take a great amount of cleverness, after war has been decided upon, to induce the people to go into it with hearts aflame. But nothing of all this obscures the fact that it is not the people, but their rulers, who really make war—in the sense, that is, of deciding whether there shall be war. Popular manifestations may influence them; how strongly, will depend upon the fibre of their statesmanship. They, on the other hand, may provoke and make use of outbursts by the people. And the result, once reached, may appear, as it does to-day in Italy, to have wild approval throughout the land. But despite all, the vital fact stands that it is statesmen who make or prevent wars. We should be on our guard how we speak of a people's war.

Granting that a war, however started, and whoever must be held ultimately responsible for its miseries and horrors, may really become a people's war, we have to face certain consequences. One is that the people are blamed for excesses and ferocities of warfare. Taine predicted that the new way of fighting—a nation in arms, instead of a war waged by professional soldiers—would lead to barbarities unmatched. When the whole country thinks it is in battle for its life, it will stop at nothing, will defend every atrocity. This is seemingly inevitable, but it really brings a people at war under unfair reproach. It cannot be strictly true, for example, that all the German people in their hearts approve of the inhumanities with which their troops are chargeable. On the other hand, a people at war may be cherishing motives unknown to their military commanders. Thus we have the spectacle of a prominent Socialist Deputy declaring in the Italian Parliament that he and his fellows consented to the war as a means of leading to universal disarmament. Such are the contradictions of a people's war!

THE "WAYS OF FREEDOM."

It was a Frenchman, M. Lemaître, who some years ago reminded the world that it would have to take the defects of liberty along with its blessings. The ways of democracy cannot be those of absolutism. Endless debate, political agitation, popular outcries, a certain amount of wasted energy—these things, said he, are the "mœurs de la liberté." We are often tempted to deplore what seems to be the inevitable inefficiency of a democratic form of government, and sometimes envy the relentless order and deadly precision of an autocratic organization; but we have to make our choice between the essential principles of the two. If we go in for political freedom we have to put up with some of its "ways" that are not pleasing. A tyranny is smoother working, but not for that reason would we prefer to be subject to it. With all its faults, we love the political system of liberty.

These homely truths are just now getting a fresh and striking illustration in England. In the midst of a war which is straining the resources of the British Empire, partisan discussions break out violently, a bitter press campaign is set on foot against the Government, a recasting of the Cabinet is forced, the wisdom of the entire military policy of the country is challenged, and it might seem to an outsider as if English public life were falling into chaos. These things are certainly not edifying. They make a bad impression abroad. What becomes of the boasted unity and determination of England in fighting this war to a finish, if parties fall to quarrelling, statesmen begin gibing at one another, and powerful newspapers set about railing like a very drab? Well, all that need be said is that this is the English way. It has been bred in the bone for centuries. That a man should not boldly say what he believes; that the Government should compel assent and put down critics by force—those are the unthinkable things in the long English tradition. It is asserting itself to-day, with the nation bowed under the burden of war, just as it did in the Crimean War, the Boer War. It is one of the ways of English freedom.

If you want an example of the other thing, you have only to go to Germany under conditions of war. A "neutral" observer, with special knowledge and unusual facilities for obtaining information, has been writing to the London *Times* a series of letters on the state of mind of the German people. In general, he has given them high praise. So he does in his latest letter, in which he deals with the attitude of the working classes towards the war. This is not easy to determine, for several reasons. Occasional private complaints are heard, but, as a rule, "official and semi-official versions of things are accepted blindly." Moreover, there is a "military prevention of all serious propaganda adverse to the war." Many workingmen are discontented with their small share in the huge profits of the war-industries, but "strikes are not permitted." It is known, too, that the press is held under rigid governmental control. It is not merely a question of censorship of news, but of restricted editorial discussion. Suspension or suppression hangs over the head of the too daring newspaper. In short, almost all the means of free public expression are denied. A German merchant cannot even go out and offer a premium for gold; if he does, he is in danger of being at once clapped into jail. Such an overflow of bad temper and unpleasant charges against the responsible rulers as we are now witnessing in Great Britain would be wholly impossible in the Germany of to-day. The contrast between the two nations could not be more glaring. The German machine is running at high speed with scarcely a sign of friction; the English groans and creaks as if it were about to fall to pieces.

It is not. Everybody knows that these acrimonious debates—these unseemly squabblings—do not in the least indicate a relaxing in England's purpose. Even the German comments show that the real significance of

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what is going on is not lost. At first, a certain encouragement seemed to be derived by Germany from the English political upheaval. But second thoughts brought the reminder that such things had occurred before, and that they only represented England's customary fashion of floundering through to her object with a great deal of ill temper and much lost motion. The very men who are kicking up the needless row are the loudest in affirming that the nation is bound to see the war through. There is a great deal of political confusion and dust visible, but behind it all the attentive eye can see the unbroken British resolution.

We shall not weary our readers with any weighing of the advantages of the method of liberty over against those of the system of centralized and rigid control. As individuals make their choice between them, so do nations. And it would be a rash man who, if he had the power, would impose the same form of government upon all the world. In political variety, too, there is a charm. But for us Americans the choice was made long before any now living were born. This nation is committed to the ways of freedom. Open criticism and unfettered debate may seem to hamper us, now and then, but they are in the blood of America, and cannot be got out. We grumble at them when they get in our way, but woe be to the man who seeks to deprive us of them! We want organization and we want efficiency; it is not to be admitted that they are inconsistent with democracy; but, above all, we want liberty.

BACK IN THE FOLD.

During nine months of the war, a large proportion of our fellow-citizens of German birth or descent found themselves in a very trying position. Whether through their own fault or not, the fact was that they were widely regarded as of doubtful loyalty to their adopted country, and the "hyphenated American" became the constant object of caustic comment in the newspaper press. Nor was anything done to remove, or even to diminish, this feeling of suspicion and resentment, until the sinking of the Lusitania, followed by the determined stand of President Wilson, brought the country face to face with the imminent possibility of a clash with Germany. After that, it was impossible that things should go on as they had been going; there was bound to be a radical change, either for the better or for the worse.

The change has come, and it is one in which the whole country can take the keenest satisfaction. On all sides, Americans of German origin are expressing their unequivocal fidelity to American institutions and to the cause of this country, whithersoever it may lead them. Representative German-American organizations have hastened to affirm their unswerving loyalty. German newspapers, notably the *Staats-Zeitung* of New York, have declared their position without ambiguity. Expressions of fervent American patriotism have come from leading citizens of German blood in all parts of the country. And what has thus appeared on the part of the Teutonic element in our population is matched by the reception which has been accorded to it. Everywhere, a new tone is manifest in references to the German-American. He has been met halfway, and more. People are forgetting the ugly tone of the German-American press in the past, and making allowance for the fact —a fact which would always have been admitted, had it not been crowded out by other and more pressing considerations—that it is but natural that attachment to the country of their origin should have led many German-Americans into passionate defence of the old Fatherland against the terrible condemnation which was being passed upon it by nearly the whole body of their American fellow-citizens, and by practically the whole of the American press, exclusive of the German newspapers. To this sentiment they will doubtless continue to cling; but never again, we feel sure, will the manner of its expression be what it has been in the past.

Of this expression the feature that was at once the most prominent and the most preposterous, especially in the early days of the war, consisted in the attitude shown towards the leading organs of public opinion in America. The idea that the American press was actually subsidized by "British gold" was, indeed, too silly to be put forward very conspicuously; but the notion that our newspapers were led astray by "British lies" was constantly harped upon; and indeed the German-American newspapers formed the habit of referring to papers printed in the language of this country as the "Anglo-American press." That which every man who went about among the people knew to be the spontaneous reaction of the mind and conscience of the American people to the broad and indisputable facts of the case was stigmatized as subserviency to London influences; and when the heart of the nation was stirred as it has seldom been by indignation at awful international crimes, it was fatuously supposed that the attitude of the American people had been determined by exaggerated reports of initial victories of the Belgians and the French. With almost incredible obtuseness of perception, the champions of Kaiserism and Junkerism thought to sway American opinion by imputing to this people, and its representatives in the press, either childish ignorance, or base subserviency, or a contemptible readiness to range themselves with the winning side, whatever might be the right or wrong of the case.

How utterly mistaken any such estimate of American opinion and American journalism is, it should have required nothing but the most ordinary knowledge of the country to show; but had anything else been needful it should have been amply supplied by the single consideration that the great preponderance of American sentiment at the time of the South African War was pro-Boer. Moreover, there was very little anti-German sentiment in this country, and there was a great deal of feeling favorable to Germany. Even when the guilt of bringing on the great calamity of this war was, to the American mind, clearly and absolutely fixed upon Germany; even when to this was added the cynical violation of Belgium and the unspeakable barbarities committed there, it was always upon the militarist caste and not upon the German people that every American newspaper endeavored to throw the awful burden of those crimes. The greatest service that German-American editors could have rendered to the Fatherland would have been that of giving force to this distinction by showing that, in spite of the ties of birth or origin, they saw these things with the eye of truth and justice. This was perhaps too much to hope for; failure to rise to this height was natural enough. But now that a new chapter has been opened in the story, it is to be hoped that more and more of the men of German stock on our shores who feel as all liberal Germans felt half a century ago will speak their minds. Many have done so since the sinking of the Lusitania; a few had boldly uttered their sentiments before that time. But there are thousands of them who, while loving Germany intensely and proud of her great achievements, abhor as do the rest of us Americans that awful spirit of ruthless force which has submerged all that is best and highest in her traditions and in the spirit of her people. To win back for Germany that sympathy and friendship which Americans have felt for her in the past, the most effective means would be to remind them that Germany is not wholly represented by lust of power and contempt for the opinion of mankind. And

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this service to their former country our German-American fellow-citizens have now a wonderful opportunity to perform.

STATISTICS AND SOCIAL FACTS.

Such an article as that by Dr. Scott Nearing, of the University of Pennsylvania, in the *Popular Science Monthly* for May, upon "Wages and Salaries in Organized Industry," brings forcibly to mind the difficulty of obtaining significant information upon even the simplest social facts. It is only by searching in many sources and putting this and that together with much labor and pains that we can get an answer to the most elementary questions relating to a matter which perhaps of all in the domain of social conditions is the subject of most general interest and most constant discussion. The article brings out many points of great interest; nor is its interest diminished by the circumstance that to a critical reader it should suggest other points, quite as important and significant, which it does not touch upon. Dr. Nearing very properly lays stress, from the outset, upon the inadequacy of averages as an indication of wage conditions; it is to the classified table of wages that we must look for a better approximation to a real picture. He then goes on to give us a considerable number of really important results of the examination of tables both of average and of classified wages, and some comparisons with salaries.

For all the railways of the United States, the average daily compensation of general officers was $12.99. But the daily pay of "other officers" averaged only $6.27; upon which Dr. Nearing remarks that "the compensation rates for 'other officers' do not greatly exceed the rates for the best-paid wage-earners." Upon the railways, however, the classes of wage-earners most highly paid, the conductors and the enginemen, fall well below the foregoing average, the average in these classes being $4.16 and $4.79, respectively; while "for most of the employees the average daily compensation ranges around $2.00." As for the proportion in which the whole outlay of the railways for personal service is divided between salaries and wages, it is pointed out that "if to the salaries of all officers are added the total salaries of the clerks, the entire salary schedule for the railroads covers 8 per cent. of the total amount paid in compensation." And it is highly interesting that very nearly this same proportion—say from 8 to 10 per cent.—holds in the case of street railways, of mines and quarries, and of all large, highly organized industries for which figures are available.

As for classified wage-rates, we get such facts as that in the iron and steel industry 8 per cent. of the wage-earners were paid (in 1910) at a rate below $500 a year, 60 per cent. below $750, 85 per cent. below $1,000, and 97 per cent. below $1,500. In the cotton industry, there is a marked difference between North and South. In the North, of males sixteen years of age and over, only 5 per cent. received a wage of less than $250, while in the South 22 per cent. fell into this category. In the North, half the men were paid at a rate of less than $500 a year; in the South, four-fifths. Comparisons between men's and women's wages also appear. Thus at Lawrence, Mass., half the men and four-fifths of the women received a wage-rate of less than $500; it is rather noteworthy, however, that while only one-eighth of the men got $600 or more, there was not wanting a respectable proportion of women—one-sixteenth—who passed the $600 mark. The nearest approach to a general conclusion is perhaps contained in this passage:

> An examination of the figures for various States, and for all of the leading industries of the country, corroborates the conclusions already made from the special reports. The wage rates are such that, making no allowance for unemployment, about one-tenth of the males receive more than $1,000 per year, and about one-eighth of the females more than $500 per year. At the same time, from a quarter to a third of the males receive less than $500 per year, and from a tenth to a fifth of the females receive less than $250 per year. Thus the great bulk of the males are paid wage rates varying from $500 to $1,000, while the great bulk of the females are paid wage rates of from $250 to $500. To this general statement, Oklahoma and California are exceptions. The wage rates there are considerably higher than in the East.

That any such survey raises as many questions as it answers, goes without saying. But there is one in particular that seems worth insisting on at once. Just as the average leaves us in the dark as to the actual inequalities of compensation that lurk behind the average, so the classified table leaves us in the dark as to the nature of the lines upon which these differences are drawn. It is not a mere accident that some wage-earners get $1.50 a day and others in the same industry get $4.00. To what extent do these things turn upon differences of personal efficiency or industry, and to what extent upon accidents of demand and supply? And there is one question narrower and simpler than this, and indeed quite accessible to statistical inquiry. What relation is there between wages and age—either natural age or length of service? This question bears very acutely upon the problem of the minimum wage (whether for men or women) and upon the difference between men's and women's wages. A mere census covering age and length of service in connection with wage-rates, carefully taken in a few typical examples of industrial employment, might throw a very instructive light upon some highly vexed questions of the day.

Foreign Correspondence

PHILOSOPHY IN WARTIME—AMERICAN RELIEF FOR ENGLISH AND GERMAN GIRLS.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, May 7.

Never again will it be possible for the practical man to sneer at the power of philosophical theory. For who can deny that this great European conflict is being waged between two theories of life? Germany, in particular, is surely in the grip of a *Weltanschauung* that colors the action of every group or individual. This is true, even if we believe with Madame de Staël that "the Germans employ philosophical reasonings to explain what is the least philosophical thing in the world, respect for force and the fear which transforms that respect into admiration." The attempts of contemporary philosophers to explain or characterize the war have therefore more than an academic value. A significant paper might now be written about "Philosophers on the War," and perhaps even a few random and untechnical notes may not be wholly without interest. Certainly we never were in more urgent need for such consolation and encouragement as philosophy may vouchsafe us. I confine myself to those philosophers who address the Allies, and who have chosen as their medium the *Hibbert Journal* for April (an extraordinarily interesting number).

M. Henri Bergson, whose sayings have been much quoted in all directions since the outbreak of the war, sees in Germany's present philosophical position nothing but a translation into ideas of her amazement at her success since 1870. It is a philosophy of insatiable ambition and pride-perverted will. A wrong turn has been taken, and scientific barbarism is the result. We have the "mechanization of spirit" instead of the "spiritualization of matter." The pity of it is that Germany's "moral force is only the confidence which her material force inspires in her. And this means that in this respect also she is living on her reserves; she has no means of recruiting. *Even before England had begun the blockade of her coasts she had blockaded herself morally by isolating herself from every ideal capable of revitalizing her.*"

Professor Jacks, in the second of the *Hibbert* articles, follows M. Bergson in natural sequence with a disquisition on the tyranny of mere things. Man has created the monster of machinery, and the monster now dictates the terms on which his creator must live. A fighting machine compels to fight; nations make war when their armies are ready; armaments possess a will of their own. We

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have all been on a wrong tack. The difference between the culture of Germany and that prevalent elsewhere is mainly one of superior mechanism. Her thought is standardized and controlled by the expert. Her national conduct and aspiration might have been learned from Sennacherib, Jenghiz Khan, Machiavelli, and Mephistopheles. "The way of civilization lies *round* and not *through* that point of advance at which Germany now stands." Militarism, says Mr. Jacks, is the Satan whom Europe has employed to cast out Satan; but the vacancy must not be filled by a creed of pure industrialism. And America is warned that "the signs of economic disturbance have been most abundant in that country which is at once the wealthiest and the least menanced by foreign war." Our great ground of hope lies in the fact that we are all learning the same lesson at the same time.

Evelyn Underhill (Mrs. Stuart Moore), writing on the "Problems of Conflict" as a patriotic mystic, is courageous enough to hope that war may be the "dreadful medicine" for "the destructive effects of industrialism, the squalor and horror, the wreckage of vice and degeneration which underlies 'peaceful prosperity.'" To her, "war, which makes hell actual to us, is the very cause and occasion of that struggle for true equilibrium. abiding peace—the perfect adjustment of the human spirit to Divine Reality--which we mean by 'heaven.'" Its justification is the way it opens up to spiritual reconstruction. The moral transvaluation brought about during these terrible months may be worth the awful price paid for it. "The demand which the war has made upon us is just that demand of an unselfing, a mergence of the small, thin, personal existence in the rich whole of a larger life, which is at bottom the demand which religion makes under more beautiful and subtle forms."

Count Hermann Keyserling, writing on the "Meaning of the War," from the isolation of Baltic Russia, speaks about his national enemy with a philosophic detachment that few can emulate though some may praise. Since Germany could not help growing, she is, though responsible for this war, hardly "guilty" of it, in the ordinary sense. He recognizes that the Allies are playing "le beau rôle," but thinks they owe it very much to chance. He does not think any of them incapable of misdeeds such as those of Germany; but it is Germany's *consciousness* of what she is doing that legitimately exposes her to severer criticism than Russia and France have met with in similar cases. The English, whom he considers the least self-conscious of European nations, have committed their breaches of international comity from instinct rather than from intent. As Germany's defects are those of her qualities, he somewhat strangely anticipates the possibility that the new era of righteousness may have "its dawn" in that country. Peoples change very quickly; "an enormous amount of what the Germans are committing just now has nothing whatever to do with their soul—it is the result of machinery, automatism, prejudice. If the machine falls to pieces, all may change." He concludes that we are fighting for a higher state of being, not merely for a more satisfactory state of political existence. "Metaphysically, this justifies the war."

Among the numerous new "industries" called into being by the war is a fresh species of "personally conducted tours," carried on in the interests of German girls stranded in England and of English girls stranded in Germany and Belgium. The organization in charge of this task is the International Women's Relief Committee, with headquarters in London. But if the organizing voice is that of the English Jacob, the instrumental hands are those of the American Esau, for naturally neutrals alone are eligible for this very delicate and important job. No finer opportunity has ever been offered to the tact, the endurance, and the pluck of American womanhood; and most nobly and efficiently has it risen to the occasion. When these workers (among whom may be mentioned Mrs. Dickson, of California, and Miss Adelaide Stickney, of Taunton, Mass.) are in a position to give a full account of their services and adventures, the world will have before it a most moving and interesting story. Here nothing can be given but the briefest indication of their *modus operandi;* but it will be easy to read between the lines. When the leader has collected her little flock of German girls in London, she conveys them through Holland to the German frontier, at Emmerich, and spends the night with them in somewhat uncomfortable "billets" at Wesel. The girls, with true Teutonic sentimentality, are apt to be a little hysterical on reëntering their Vaterland, and give free expression to their feelings. The conductor's next move is on Brussels, which forms the headquarters of her operations in Belgium. Owing to the singular confidence and indifference of the English girls in the earlier stages of the war, there are now many such in Belgium, who are practically out of reach (*e. g.*, at Bruges). The conductor's field is mainly in the central province, under the civil government of Gen. von Bissing, but she also manages to do a little work in the military zone, known as the "Etapes," and has even (though this is outside her official limits) succeeded in reaching one or two pining maidens in such places as Menin, well within the actual "Ligne de feu." "Pining," by the way, is merely a literary decoration, as the girls are generally found to be placid, rosy, and in the best of health. The conduct of the nuns, in whose charge most of them are, has been beyond all praise, as they have invariably treated their young pupils exactly as if the remittances from England were arriving with the usual punctuality, and this when food is getting daily more and more scarce. It is easy to understand that work of this nature is even more delicate and difficult in Belgium than in Germany itself, on account of the greater proneness to suspicion of spying, and the like, in an occupied country. The members of the society have, however, usually had satisfactory credentials from the German authorities, without whose good-will their task would be impossible, and have little reason to complain of annoyance or discourtesy, though the German feeling towards America has during the past few weeks been decidedly diminishing in cordiality.

The scope of the Society's work—which is steadily becoming more difficult—may be indicated by the mention of Mons, Louvain, Menin, Lille, and Virton, as among the places visited by its emissaries. Miss Stickney has also been able to combine the tracing of some "missing" soldiers with her other work, finding them sometimes as captives, sometimes under the sod. Her tales of this part of her experiences are inexpressibly touching.

The average charge made by the committee for finding a girl and bringing her back to England is about £10. The necessary expense, however, often exceeds this amount, so that a considerable sum has to be raised by subscription.

CARL SPITTELER—SWISS HOTELS—THE CASE OF A DESERTER.

GENEVA, May 6.

The seventieth birthday of the Lucerne poet, Carl Spitteler, was celebrated in Switzerland with enthusiasm. Spitteler, who has been called "The Swiss Flaubert," is much admired for his two principal poems, "The Olympian Springtime" and "Prometheus." At first he was looked upon as an Ishmaelite, and was severely criticised, especially as his sentiments are pagan, and somewhat pessimistic. His heroes are Hercules and Prometheus. Gradually the bold independence of his thought and the beauty of his language commanded attention not only in Switzerland, but in Germany. After the war broke out, however, Spitteler made an appeal to the Swiss which greatly offended the Germans. He urged his own people not to let their sympathies with either of the belligerents, France or Germany, cause them to depart from the path of strict neutrality or impair their national unity. The fierce resentment shown by German men of letters to this utterance, no doubt, added greatly to the sympathy which was manifested by the Swiss at this birthday celebration. The Society of Free Students held a great meeting at Berne, which was addressed by Dr. Fraenkel, of the University, who spoke contemptuously of the German displeasure at the poet. At Zürich there was another notable celebration, and a eulogy was pronounced by Prof. Paul Geippel, of the Polytechnicum, in which he apostrophized Spitteler, saying: "After having heard you, we Swiss, whatever our race or language, have felt at home, and safe. To-day your name, which has reached the most remote valleys of the Alps, and of the Jura, is the only one which can reunite all those who love their country. It has become the symbol of Helvetian concord." A like meeting at Lucerne was attended by representatives of all the Swiss universities and learned societies.

M. Füglister, an engineer, who is a native of Switzerland, practiced his profession at Louvain. After the destruction of the town, he gave lectures in the canton of Neuchâtel on "The Truth about Louvain." These were descriptive, and consisted chiefly of the lecturer's own experiences. He was invited to speak at Bienne, in the canton of Berne, but the Federal military department intervened, and forbade him, on pain of arrest, to lecture on Louvain or to publish any account of what he had seen there. The incident caused much indignation, especially in French Switzerland, where M. Füglister's speech was thought to be very moderate. On the one hand, it is contended that the Swiss military censorship has no right to forbid him to relate what he saw in Belgium; on the other hand, it is maintained that in the interests of the tranquillity and neutrality of the country, no occasion should be given for the kind of demonstrations which of late have been so frequent in Italy. Switzerland has thus far been remarkably free from public expressions of sentiment in favor of any of the nations now at war. The only exception has been at Fribourg, where a mob broke the windows of certain foreign professors because trains carrying French refugees did not stop at the railway station. For some reason it was supposed that these professors objected to the charity bestowed on the refugees while the latter stopped at Fribourg. It turns out that the railway authorities sent the trains

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through for reasons connected with the traffic.

For Switzerland, one of the most serious things about the war is the severe blow which has been given to the hotel industry. Perhaps foreigners, and especially foreign tourists, appreciate this even better than the Swiss do themselves. According to a very well-informed authority, Herr Lehmann, of Lucerne, the annual income of the Swiss hotels is ordinarily five hundred million francs. From the industry the state derives immense advantages—five millions in post office, two millions in telegraph and telephone receipts, while the gross earnings of the state railways from tourist travel amount to between fifteen and twenty million francs a year. In 1912, there were 3,585 hotels in Switzerland, representing an investment of 1,135 million francs. It is therefore plain that the hotel business is almost, if not quite, the chief industry of the Swiss. During the year 1914 the receipts from this industry were diminished 40 per cent., and there was a great loss owing to the expense of extensive advertising in connection with the Berne exposition. The question now confronting not only the hotel people, but the national economists, is, what will happen this year? Under ordinary circumstances, Germans, French, English, Americans, and Russians constitute fully 70 per cent. of the visitors and tourists. Herr Lehmann believes that very little can be expected of the Americans during the coming season, for few of them will be going abroad owing to the interference with transatlantic carriers. Moreover, many will be attracted by the opening of the Panama Canal and the San Francisco fair. Even those Europeans who can do so will not be inclined to travel, on account of difficulties at the frontiers, the crippled railway service, and the danger of having their automobiles requisitioned by the military authorities. Herr Lehmann thinks that after the war there are bright hopes for Switzerland, which will have a fresh attraction to all the countries of the world. He fears, however, that the Swiss press, by departing from its supposed neutrality, may prevent this desirable influx of strangers. The peoples now at war will, of course, not be inclined after the war to visit the enemy's country; and should they wish to go abroad, neutral Switzerland should give them all a welcome.

Like the Swiss hotels, the famous Swiss Alpine Club has been a sufferer during the past year. Notwithstanding an accession of 1,130 new members, the Club reports a deficit, and has been able to do very little in building new cabins and repairing the old ones. For the first time in nearly fifty years, no "year book" is to be published.

A singular conflict between the Swiss military and civil authorities has arisen with respect to the treatment of deserters from the contending armies. Last December a soldier deserted from the German cavalry and crossed the Swiss frontier. He was arrested and was provisionally detained at Berne as a prisoner of war; but as he had friends at Zürich he was permitted to go to the latter town to stay, provided he reported his presence there every three days. The police, however, discovered that in 1910 the soldier had been expelled *à perpétuité* from Swiss territory. Consequently, he was rearrested by the civil authority. The military commander objected to this proceeding, on the ground that the culprit was a prisoner of war. The *procureur* refused to release the deserter, on the ground that the latter's chief offence had nothing to do with martial law, and that the offender was not a prisoner of war. Desertion from a foreign army is, of course, not an extraditable offence, but if the prisoner were to be sent back across the frontier he would be shot. His return to Switzerland after the decree of expulsion renders him liable to six months in prison. If he is treated by the Swiss civil authorities, he will be executed as a deserter by the German military authorities, whereas if the Swiss military authorities have jurisdiction he may remain at Zürich until the end of the war.

A. A.

The Pope, Italy, and the War

AN EXAMINATION OF THE ATTITUDE OF THE PAPACY TOWARDS THE WARRING POWERS AND OF THE PROBLEMS WITH WHICH IT WILL BE CONFRONTED BY THE INTERVENTION OF ITALY.

ROME, May 1.

In following up with a fourth three articles I have already written for the *Nation* on the pontificate of Benedict XV,* it has seemed best to adopt the form of reviewing a book that was published late in March under the title which I have taken as my own.† The author, Guglielmo Quadrotta, is a young journalist attached to the Rome *Messaggero*, who seems to be destined to an eminent career: the writer of the preface, Francesco Scaduto, is professor of canon law at the University of Rome, and one of the first Italian authorities on this subject.

To take things a little out of their order, Signor Quadrotta's second chapter is on the last Conclave. "The heavy penalties," he says, "sanctioned in the rules for the Conclave fixed by Pius X shortly after his elevation to the pontificate, whereby the right of veto was abolished, and whoever should divulge the secrets of the Conclave's proceedings was threatened with excommunication, make it almost certain that no cardinal will venture to reveal what went on behind the scenes at the election of Benedict XV, as did Cardinal Mathieu after that of Pius X. But there is something stronger than the terrors of excommunication and pontifical menaces, namely, ecclesiastical loquacity, which is said to be no less active than that of women. Having drawn on this inexhaustible source, we can give some new information on the secrets of the Conclave of 1914, and guarantee its authenticity."

According to what Quadrotta now tells us, I observe with pleasure that there is little to be changed, except by way of addition, in the account I gave of the Conclave in my letter to the *Nation* for October 1. It would seem, however, that the final triumph of Cardinal Della Chiesa was not due, as I then said, to the support of Cardinal Ferrata. On the afternoon of September 1, Maffi, Archbishop of Pisa, received twenty-six votes out of a total of fifty-seven; Serafini, the candidate of the intransigents, nineteen; Della Chiesa, eleven, and the rest scattering. The morning of the 2d Maffi kept his twenty-six votes, but Serafini was close behind him with twenty-four, while Della Chiesa came third with fifteen. Early in the afternoon Maffi, who from the first had besought his friends to abandon his name, called Ferrari, Mercier, and Agliardi to his apartment, and urged them to unite for Della Chiesa. But Serafini's champions, Merry del Val and De Lai, had not been idle, and the ballot taken the same afternoon gave him twenty-seven to Della Chiesa's twenty-five.

Tandem ductores audita caede suorum
Conveniunt Teucri.

That night the forces of Della Chiesa reassembled, having won to their cause a number of non-Italian cardinals, and did not go to bed until they were sure that Serafini would not be elected the next morning. Although they hardly expected the immediate success of their own candidate, he was, in fact, elected on the first ballot with thirty-nine votes, just one more than the required two-thirds. Serafini received seventeen from the uncompromising reactionaries, and Ferrata one.

Returning from this digression, I remark, in the first place, that the plan of Quadrotta's book is very well conceived. It is divided into eight chapters, each one of which is followed by notes, referred to by corresponding numbers in the text, which give an extensive bibliography of books and periodical literature, including the daily press; while at the end there is an appendix of longer documents, nineteen in all, for the fuller elucidation of the arguments and historical notices introduced. For example, this appendix comprises the full text of the Law of Guarantees and of the Encyclical *Ad Beatissimi*. The table of contents is so complete that the lack of an alphabetical index is hardly felt. It is plain, on the other hand, that the book was hurriedly written and printed, and the proof-reading leaves much to be desired. There are not a few hasty and ill-considered judgments, revealing the bias of partisanship and prejudice.

The first four chapters, entitled, respectively, The Roman Church at the Death of Pius X, The Conclave that Elected Benedict XV, The Personality of the Pope and his Political Preparation, and The Fall of the Temporal Power and the Ecclesiastical Policy of the New Kingdom, are chiefly by way of introduction. In the fifth, on the Law of Guarantees, the author comes to close quarters with his subject. His argument turns, not merely on the text of the law, but also on its interpretation at the time it was passed and since. In 1871 the popular enthusiasm that had sustained the Government during the wars for independence and unity had subsided with the occupation of Rome, and the leaders of the Parliamentary Right, who were still in power and were responsible for the drafting and passing of the law, were timorously anxious not to offend Catholic sentiment in other countries. Accordingly, they paid little heed to the objections raised

*See the issues of October 1, December 10, 1914, and January 7, 1915.

†*Il Papa, L' Italia, e La Guerra*, di Guglielmo Quadrotta. Prefazione di Francesco Scaduto. Milano: Ravà e C.—Editori. Lire 2.

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by the Left, that the law limited the authority of the state over Catholics, but not over non-Catholics, and that the granting of full immunities and privileges to ambassadors to the Vatican was dangerous unless it should be limited to time of peace. An amendment was proposed that "all the privileges accorded to the Pope, that have reference to ambassadors to the Pontifical See, and to the sending of telegrams and postal correspondence, shall be suspended in case of war between Italy and other Powers, of wars in which Italy shall remain neutral, and in whatever other contingency it shall seem necessary to the internal or external security of the state." Senator Bonghi, the drafter of the law, objected that it was useless to conjure up possible variations it might suffer in consequence of war or of other unforeseen circumstances, and his view prevailed. But Professor Scaduto maintains in his preface that, in spite of the unmodified terms in which the law is drawn, it was the understanding of both Chambers that in case of war the Government, by act of Parliament, or even on its own responsibility, can suspend the immunities of ambassadors accredited to the Holy See by Powers at war with Italy.*

The question of Pope Benedict's political aspirations, which is the theme of Quadrotta's seventh chapter, is also raised by Professor Scaduto in his spirited introduction. Temporalistic ambitions, in the sense of reacquiring the whole or a part of the lost Papal States, may safely be excluded. But Scaduto considers it entirely probable that the Pope, and the Vatican politicians generally, desire that the Law of Guarantees be made international. In my letter to the *Nation* of January 7 I called attention to this conjecture as based on a passage in the Encyclical *Ad Beatissimi*, wherein also, according to some, his ambition to participate in the Peace Congress at the end of the war is distinctly hinted at. It cannot be doubted that such internationalization is the aspiration of many Catholic politicians, lay and clerical, who would thus hope to content their own party without too much offence to the Liberals. But that the Pope himself desires it is much more questionable. It would imply the renunciation of all pretensions to the temporal power, which, though nobody expects to see them realized, are not without significance in the Vatican's foreign policy.

This internationalization might take place by concession of Italy, or by diplomatic or military pressure upon Italy by the Powers; but both suppositions are equally unlikely. It might also come about, as Scaduto observes, without the participation of the Pope in the Peace Congress. In this event he would have the double advantage of profiting by the law without formally accepting it, as he does in the case of the actual Law of Guarantees, and of not formally renouncing the temporal power. Such a consummation would be a political triumph for the Papacy, but is likewise highly improbable. Whether Italy takes part in the war or not (at the time I write there is little doubt that she will), she will almost certainly have a place in the Congress. But represented or not, she could hardly tolerate a Papal delegation, so much would this be to the damage of her prestige at home and abroad.

Signor Quadrotta treats Pope Benedict's first Encyclical, which was the subject of my letter to the *Nation* of January 7, with what seems to me unwarrantable severity. He accuses him of nothing less than taking advantage of the greatest war in history to add the "Roman question" to the difficult and dangerous problems that European statesmen will soon have to solve. From the point of view of style and thought he regards the Encyclical as a very mediocre composition, entirely overlooking its capital importance for the internal life and government of the Church. He believes that the allusion it contains to the Roman question may issue in the most serious consequences to the Italian people, and in support of his opinion cites the statement, also quoted by me, of a writer in the *Corriere della Sera* of Milan, that "at the end of the Encyclical there is unquestionably a protest against the condition existing since 1870, more vigorous and precise than has ever before come from the Vatican." But Quadrotta and the writer in the *Corriere* are almost alone in this opinion. The *Idea Nazionale* of Rome pointed out that, whereas former Pontiffs had asserted nothing less than their rights to the temporal power over the Roman states, Benedict XV has limited himself to affirming the right of all Catholics to the assurance that their common Father, in the exercise of his apostolic ministry, be really free from all human authority. In this very book, indeed, on page 14, are cited two utterances of Pius X which are decidedly more vigorous assertions of the temporal principle than anything to be found in the Encyclical *Ad Beatissimi*.

At the time I wrote the aforesaid letter, early in December, in spite of the Austro-German sympathies that prevailed in the Vatican and generally among Italian clericals, the Francophile tradition to which the Pope had been brought up under Cardinal Rampolla, and a few public utterances capable of interpretation in this sense, made it appear that his policy would tend to favor the Allies. I have, indeed, been assured on good authority that personally he is on this side. But Prussia, Austria, and Bavaria were represented at the Vatican by able and experienced diplomats, respectively, Dr. Otto Muehlberg, Prince Schoenburg-Hartenstein, and Baron Otto Ritter de Grünstein; and one of the Pope's private secretaries was Mgr. Gerlach, formerly Count Gerlach, of the Bavarian army, who has lately been dismissed. Working discreetly in an environment already favorable to them, these men for a while had it all their own way in the Vatican. To oppose them there were only the Belgian Minister, Baron D'Erp, enfeebled by age, and M. Nelidow, the Russian Minister, who is not even a Catholic, and who had little influence on account of accusations of the maltreatment of Catholics in Russia. As it was impossible without the loss of valuable time for the French Government to treat with the Curia for the resumption of diplomatic relations, Great Britain sent Sir Henry Howard late in December on a temporary mission to the Papal Court, and in March Belgium sent Professor Van den Heuvel to take the place of Baron D'Erp.

It was about the beginning of December that the French and Belgians began to feel bitter disappointment and surprise at what seemed to them the cold, even unfriendly, attitude of the Pope. His letter to Cardinal Luçon, Archbishop of Rheims, and that of Cardinal Gasparri to Cardinal Mercier, were, according to them, little more than formally correct. To be sure, the Pope, under the date of December 8, addressed a letter to Mercier in which he expressed all his paternal affliction and solicitude for the sufferings of the Belgian people. But French and Belgian publicists, and Signor Quadrotta following their example, with no consideration for the difficulties of his position, demanded an explicit condemnation of the Germans. The tension finally resulted, as is well known, in the sequestration by the French authorities of the Prayer for Peace, which the Pope had composed and commanded to be recited in all the churches of Europe on February 7, and which was released only on the condition that it was to be interpreted in the sense given to it by Cardinal Amette, Archbishop of Paris. Even a recrudescence of Gallicanism was regarded as not improbable in Roman ecclesiastical circles.

But the situation now, with respect to the relations of France and Belgium with the Holy See, is greatly improved, and, in fact, may be considered almost normal. The resentment that showed itself in those countries, though quite natural, was largely due to ignorance or misapprehension of the facts. I now proceed to state what the facts were, some of which have not been made public, so far as I can with certainty vouch for their truth.

It must be borne in mind, to begin with, that the violation of Belgian neutrality, and many of the crimes committed by the Germans in that country, took place before the election of Benedict XV. To what extent his action and the policy of the Holy See had already been determined, or compromised, by Pius X and Merry del Val, we cannot say, but anyhow it is certain that his position was much more difficult than if he had been Pope at the outbreak of the war. And the task of laying a just and impartial course was made harder by the diplomatic preponderance of Austria and Germany at the Vatican. Nor could the Pope utter a public condemnation of the Germans on the basis of declarations which were, after all, *ex parte*, however much he might believe

*See *Nation* of October 22, 1914, p. 492. A solution of the delicate problem has already been found, the Pope having voluntarily requested the withdrawal, on grounds of expediency, of the Austrian and German diplomatic representatives accredited to the Holy See.

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them. When the imprisonment of Cardinal Mercier was reported, he sent a protest to the German Emperor, which he promised to withdraw if the report should be disproved. It was disproved, and he kept his word. But he entered another protest against the restrictions placed on Cardinal Mercier's liberties, and allowed it to be published, though for some reason it did not receive a very wide currency. Furthermore, I have it on unimpeachable authority that the Pope has a number of times privately remonstrated with the German Emperor on the atrocities perpetrated by his troops, but in every instance, as was to be expected, has been met with an explicit denial. It need hardly be pointed out that the Roman Pontiff, like every other potentate, may believe diplomatic denials as little as he pleases, but is obliged to take some account of them when they come from Powers represented at his court.

In the Allocution pronounced in the Consistory of January 22 the Pope declared: "To proclaim that no one may, for whatever motive, violate justice is without doubt a duty that belongs before all others to the Roman Pontiff, as to the one who is appointed by God to be His supreme interpreter and the vindicator of His eternal law. And we do, in fact, make this proclamation in no ambiguous manner, severely reproving every act of injustice by whomsoever committed. But to involve the pontifical authority in the quarrels of the belligerents would be unbecoming and would serve no useful purpose." This was not enough to satisfy some French and Belgian journalists, as it did not satisfy Signor Quadrotta, who thought that the Pope ought to have said, as there is little doubt that he meant, the Germans. However, the day after the Allocution Dr. Muehlberg, the Prussian Minister to the Vatican, formally protested against the passage I have quoted. The Pope replied, in substance, that he had mentioned no names, and it was not his fault if the Germans thought that he must have had them in mind.

The Pope, working cautiously against the influences prevalent at his court, seems to have satisfied himself that the accusations against the Germans were substantially correct. Not only did he make the very significant allusion in the Allocution itself, but allowed it to be interpreted still more significantly. The Belgian Foreign Minister telegraphed to Baron D'Erp asking him to notify the Holy See that his Government had received the official text of the Allocution, and that they highly appreciated it as "reproving the violation of right and justice, and by special mention expressing the benevolence of his Holiness for Belgium." D'Erp handed the telegram to the Vatican authorities, who a few days later inquired if they might publish it. The Belgian Government consenting, the Vatican did make it public, thereby accepting the Belgian interpretation of the Allocution.

The improvement in the Vatican's relations with France and Belgium was plainly shown by the many marks of favor with which Professor Van den Heuvel, the new Belgian Minister, was received. In an interview which he gave to the Rome *Tribuna* of March 19, two days after he had his first audience with the Pope, he declared that his Government was fully satisfied with what had been said by his Holiness in the Allocution and elsewhere, and recognized that in the circumstances his utterances could not have been made more explicit.

H. E.

Notes from Two Capitals

ARTHUR BALFOUR.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

WESTMINSTER, May 8.

When Sir William Temple was manœuvred out of public life he cut all ties with it, retiring to Moor Park to cultivate his cherries, his "Sheen plums," and his standard "apricocks," later to find solace in the secretaryship and society of one Jonathan Swift, at the time a young man of twenty-two, thankful for a home and a salary of £100 a year. When, four years ago, he discomfited faction within his ranks by suddenly announcing resignation of the leadership, Mr. Arthur Balfour, not having a taste for market gardening, confined his out-of-door pursuits to the limits of the golf links. In other directions he plunged with zest into the unaccustomed luxuries of leisured intellectual life. After twenty-five years of hard labor in the political arena he was a free man, able to enjoy natural disposition and cultured taste in other fields of pleasant labor.

It is a remarkable fact that while rising by sheer genius to the highest pinnacle of parliamentary fame, Mr. Balfour's natural leaning was not towards the House of Commons. His appearance on the scene was accidental, on his part unpremeditated. Up to his twenty-fifth year he had no hankering after Parliamentary life. It was the almost casual suggestion of his uncle, the late Marquis of Salisbury, that directed his languid footsteps to Westminster. At the general election of 1874 the Marquis was on the lookout for a suitable candidate for the family pocket borough of Hertford. "Why not Arthur," who at the time was beginning to be beset by reflections that he really ought to be settling down to some purpose in life? Balfour was not enthusiastic at the prospect thus suddenly opened out. In deference to the head of the family rather than in obedience to impulse of his own, he stood for Hertford and was of course returned.

He made no mark in the Parliament led by Disraeli after the overthrow of Gladstone. One does not remember his interposition in a single debate during the six years (1874-80) the Parliament sat. If he spoke, forgetfulness of the incident marks the current measure of his personal unimportance. It was the development of the Fourth Party in the epoch-making Parliament of 1880-5 that stirred his pulses with new life and fresh desires. But he was not easily won over. Though, as a famous contemporary sketch in the old *Vanity Fair* shows, he sat below the gangway in company with Drummond Wolf and John Gorst, under the leadership of Lord Randolph Churchill, he did not emulate their patience and industry in the patriotic task of attempting to trip up Gladstone while kicking up their heels at their own leader, Stafford Northcote.

Here is another sketch of the thumb-nail order that appeared thirty-five years ago. It may be interesting as recording the impressions of a looker-on at close quarters unprejudiced either by personal feeling or party purpose. It bears date of August 20, 1880: "The Member for Hertford is one of the most interesting young men in the House. He is not a good speaker, but he is endowed with the rich gift of conveying the impression that presently he will be a successful parliamentary debater, and that in the meantime it is well he should practice. He is a pleasing specimen of the highest form of the culture and good breeding which stand to the credit of Cambridge University. He is not without desire to say hard things of the adversary opposite, and sometimes yields to the temptation. But it is ever done with such sweet and gentle grace, is smoothed over by such earnest protestations of innocent intention, that the adversary rather likes it than otherwise."

Up to his assumption of the Premiership in 1874 Disraeli's political career was marked by periods in which he was in office, but not in power. Mr. Balfour's position at the present time is exactly the reverse. He is not in office. But, with the exception of the Prime Minister, there are few statesmen endowed with fuller measure of control over the government of the country. He is seldom seen in his old quarters on the front Opposition bench. Still more rare are his interpositions in debate. Behind the scenes, in quiet rooms in Downing Street, or at the back of the Speaker's chair, he is a constant, tireless worker. There is vague talk in some quarters of the creation of a coalition Government. In the ordinary acceptation of the term, this experiment may or may not be tried. Its principle is, however, happily at work in the close relations patriotically established at this national crisis between Mr. Balfour and a Government he was twelve months ago fighting tooth and nail. He is one of the most regular attendants upon the sittings of the Imperial Defence Committee, an institution of his own devising, which has had enormously beneficial influence upon the armed forces of the Empire.

It is terrible to think what would have happened had the country rushed into war with Germany in the same circumstances as beset it when it blundered into the Boer War. "What nation ever heard of," Lord Rosebery, speaking at the University of London, the other day, asked, "added two millions of men to its army in a few months by voluntary service, and is willing to spend two millions of money daily so long as it has it to spend in order to supply armaments?" As a supplementary question, it may be asked: What nation ever created and maintained a navy strong enough to keep cooped up in her own waters the German fleet, while it keeps open for its own ships and those of neutral Powers trade routes on all seas? That these things should be is largely owing to the far-seeing supervision of the Military Defence Committee, founded by Mr. Balfour, at whose table he sits in consultation with the Prime Minister, one or two other members of the Cabinet, and the great captains of British forces by land and sea. Recently he has added to these labors membership of the newly appointed committee to which is committed charge of due provision of munitions of war.

Amid the circumstances of to-day it is interesting to recall a speech made by Mr. Bal-

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four while still Prime Minister. It was delivered ten years ago almost to a day—the 11th of May, 1905. The vote for the salary of the secretary of the Special Defence Committee cropping up in Committee on Civil Service Estimates, Mr. Balfour unexpectedly intervened. There were at the time two questions to the fore, one relating to the possibility of invasion of this country, the other the probability of Russian descent on India. With respect to the latter, Mr. Balfour dismissed it with significant intimation that any attempt by Russia to build strategic railways in Afghanistan would be regarded as an act of aggression. As to the invasion of England by a foreign Power—Germany, for example—he, in authoritative speech, listened to with rapt attention by a crowded House, demonstrated its impossibility. For a long time after there was on this question rest in the land.

THE GROWING UP OF MR. BAILEY.

The Riggs National Bank's injunction suit is bringing once more into prominence, as counsel for the plaintiff, a figure that, after being very conspicuous in public affairs, has been for a good while out of the general view.

Twenty-four years ago, every stranger in Washington who visited the House of Representatives was sure to point down from the gallery at one man on the floor who occupied a seat near the back of the hall on the Democratic side, and inquire his name and antecedents. He had a beardless, boyish face, with straight dark hair worn so long that it lapped his collar. His features were full, and his lips wore just the suspicion of a pout. His brow was broad and his head well balanced, its expansive effect being heightened by the lake of white linen shirt-bosom which glistened beneath it, bounded by solemn black garments of the type of the sixties, including a waistcoat cut as low as if for evening dress, and a full-skirted coat. Surmounting the shirt-bosom was a smooth white necktie. When he appeared at the door at noon, he wore a broad-brimmed black sombrero; and in spite of his youth, there was a seriousness in his expression and manners that bore out the suggestion of the pulpit in the rest of his externals. The guides identified him as Mr. Bailey, of Texas, "the Baby of the House."

He was only twenty-eight years old, but he had already passed the first stages of a notable public career. At seventeen he had gathered proxies and gone into a Democratic convention in his home county, where his father was the recognized boss, and beaten the old gentleman at his own game. At twenty he had been admitted to the bar. At twenty-one, and again at twenty-five, he had been chosen Presidential elector, the latter time elector-at-large. When he came into the House, he did so with an understanding, reached with his constituency during the campaign, that if he were successful he must be kept by them in Washington for twenty years, as otherwise it would not pay him to go at all. He was welcomed to Congress by dear, honest, simple-minded old Judge Culberson, a Representative from the same State, who proclaimed him a prodigy, an embryo statesman of the first rank, and a constitutional lawyer who would make the shade of the late Daniel Webster look paler than a winter moonbeam. The youth set in to live up to the reputation thus made for him in advance. He objected to everything he could find any excuse for objecting to. He wrangled over the constitutionality of a hundred activities of the Government which most people had accepted as a matter of course up to that hour. He was frankness itself in his criticisms of friend and foe alike.

His semi-revolutionary ideas did not carry very far, though Speaker Reed had to sit on him three or four times before he quite appreciated what kind of a fight he had gone into. A few sturdy veterans of the Culberson school stood by him, however, and convinced enough Democrats of his greatness to insure his choice by the party caucus in the Fifty-fifth Congress for minority leader of the House; but the younger set grew restive under so rigid a constructionist, and when he began a campaign to oust the well-beloved Gen. Wheeler from the chamber because he had entered the army for the war with Spain, the camel's back was snapped in twain, and it was Bailey who had to abdicate his leadership and not Wheeler who had to go home.

There were bold men in the old days who accused Bailey of inconsistencies: such as declaring, at the outset of his Congressional career, that, since the Constitution scrupulously provided for the separation of the legislative and the executive branches of the Government, it was a violation of our organic law for Congressmen to look to the Administration for patronage favors, but later quarrelling with the Director of the Census for consulting other Congressmen than himself about appointments in Texas. Another incident which drew forth similar comment was his espousal, after he had passed from the House to the Senate, of the cause of Lorimer in the latter's struggle to keep his seat as Senator, on the ground that Lorimer was entitled to have his guilt formally proved upon him before being made to suffer for it; whereas, when Senator Burton was under fire, Bailey had insisted that a Senator subject to charges of corrupt complicity "must free himself from all appearance of wrongdoing beyond reasonable doubt."

Some Texans will rub their eyes at the appearance of Bailey—their Bailey, whom they sent to Congress as a champion of "the People" and an implacable foe of capitalistic domination—in his present guise of counsel for the most powerful private financial institution in Washington in its fight against the Democratic authorities of the national Treasury. Is it the same Bailey? Outwardly, it seems to be. Here is the same broad, full face, but with a harder surface and a few lines seaming it. Here are the same sable habiliments, regardless of season or occasion, but with a shade less antiquity of cut; the same revelation of white bosom, but less exaggerated; the same sombrero, with a slight shearing of brim to make it look more like a hat and less like an awning; the same straight, dark hair, with the ends clipped to a more conventional length; the same aggressive walk, though it has exchanged some of the swing of the country road and the ranch cottage for the stiffness of the granolithic pavement and the fashionable town-house. Here is the serious habit of countenance, with n added element in its expression which might have come through disappointment in the fulfilment of a life mission; the serious manner, too, though its wearer has become noted for clever phrase-making, like his description of a painfully pompous man as one who "is able to strut sitting down."

Yes, it is the same Bailey; but the Baby has grown up.

VIEILLARD.

Demos and the Professor

A PHILOSOPHICAL DISCUSSION OF THE SITUATION AT WISCONSIN.

To the hopeful it must be somewhat shocking to observe how much so-called democratic or progressive legislation is merely remedial and corrective. Yet what else could it be under conditions of a fundamental policy of *laissez-faire*, which discounts social intelligence in favor of social chance? Our polity is an equilibrium, not an organization, in which interests have expanded and enterprises grown by pushing, crowding, pressing, choking their rivals, now fitfully, now steadily, always ruthlessly. The victors have taken the spoils, and progressivism has consisted largely in restraining and despoiling the victors. Ever and anon the taxpayers, having been pushed to the end of their interminable patience by the callous temerity of the "interests" or the crusading passion of an ambitious reformer, have elected a Legislature to pass laws prohibitory of this, that, and the other thing, all of them things which need never have come to be if men had not confused welfare with wealth and wealth with commonwealth. Thus, during the last twenty years, democracy has again and again reënacted the spectacle of St. George and the Dragon. Alas! that its conduct in the presence of the dragon should be no guide to what it can achieve when there is no dragon to slay, when its task has been altered from the slaughtering of its foe to the building of its house. In Wisconsin the task of democracy has so changed, and the spectacle in Wisconsin gives one pause.

Wisconsin has been called the best-governed State in the Union. That is a mistake. Wisconsin possesses, perhaps, the best organization of State government; but this is not the same as being the best governed State. Excellent machinery facilitates but does not constitute excellent government, particularly when men fail and the machine's scope is limited. The beneficent functions of the State Government of Wisconsin do not pervade the body politic; they are confined to the specific institutions which the State actually controls. There are two Wisconsins. There is the Wisconsin of the University and the "Wisconsin Idea," for the maintenance of which much less than 10 per cent. of the State's total income is spent; and there is the Wisconsin of the Demos, for whose confusion of corporate public enterprises, county and municipal, the balance of that income is disseminated. These two Wisconsins have very little in common, either in background or ideals. The former has discovered the value of social intelligence in politics, the nature of commonwealth, the importance of the expert in the administration of the affairs of the commonwealth. It is a small, ardent, intellectual class. The latter has discovered nothing. It has instincts, it responds to fear and to hope; it stays, in mood and in outlook, not very far from the condition out of which La Follette roused it

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to follow him, a Wisconsin St. George, against the dragon of railway and lumber interests. It is Demos, fundamentally conservative, given to piety, to getting on, distrustful of innovation that checks its ordinary habits, State-blind, and hence docile to any leadership that promises to keep its several prosperities intact. Its temper is best shown in its vote on suffrage for women.

This Demos La Follette roused and scared. He showed it the dragon feeding on its substance, debauching its servants, and defiling its estate. He led it to battle against the Dragon, and so long as that shining mark was there, a thing of corruption to hate and to destroy, the electorate of Wisconsin was an army of righteousness, sending Legislature after Legislature to the Capitol to do the will of its leader against the enemy. Beginning, like progressivism everywhere in the country, as a crusade against political corruption, the progressivism of Wisconsin grew and endured so long as its foe remained obviously unconquered. But it finally conquered the foe, and the shining mark was no longer luminous to scare and enrage. The conquest took a long time. It involved as corollaries other programmes besides those of controlling the railways, equalizing taxation, and adjusting industrial relations. These tasks opened vistas of social action far wider in scope and deeper in significance for the welfare of the commonwealth. They revealed the importance of knowledge in both the economies of life, political and social. They led to the treatment of ideas and of knowledge with respect—a thing hitherto unheard of in State governments. They led to a free exchange of information and advice between the Capitol and the University. They led to the establishment of the Legislative Reference Library. They culminated in the notable growth of the University in size, influence, and reputation.

Little by little the University became the shining mark, the luminous giant in the forefront of progressivism. Under the pertinacious and somewhat evangelical leadership of Mr. Van Hise, a classmate of La Follette's, the material and spiritual expansion of the University grew apace. Appropriation after appropriation, chiefly for enlarging the plant, was asked for and was granted. The Agricultural School and the Extension Department disseminated their activities throughout the State. The other schools grew proportionately. Whether improvement in quality is compatible with increase in size is another question.

Withal, the slogan by which this growth was justified was "service to the State," and the service was demonstrated by tables concerning savings through the discoveries of various members of the faculty (particularly Professor Babcock, of the Agricultural School), earnings of graduates, and so on. Vocational curricula were emphasized. The word "efficiency" became current, "education for efficiency" the ideal. Schools of commerce, of education, of journalism, of all sorts of technologies, were added to the original nucleus. In the haste to teach the young people of the State how to make a living, it was forgotten that they needed first to know how to live. Economic value, earning capacity, was substituted for citizenship, technique for ideals. In part, this development is of a piece with the rise of doctrines of efficiency in the country as a whole; largely it is the outcome of the attempt to bring the University to the people. It keeps pace with the change in the personnel of the student body between 1895 and 1910. The catalogues of 1895 show a predominance of American names; those of 1910 of German, Polish, and other Continental names. The students of 1910, in a word, are proletarians come to college. They are only starting on the way to the life of the mind, and for their parents and them education still means nothing more than an advantage in the struggle for the life of the body. They, more than others, need to learn ideals far more than technique; in the interest of the State as a whole there was and is a much greater need to bring the people to the University than the University to the people.

The irony of the situation is this: that bringing the University to the people helped nothing towards the people's comprehension of the University. The whole of the University's plant costs less than the State Capitol, and is overwhelmingly more serviceable. But between Demos and the professor there is a gulf of misunderstanding and ignorance unbridged since the days of Aristophanes. To the farmer the professor is traditionally a variant of the priest and a development of the madman, authoritative without being in orders, paradoxical and unintelligible without being under lock and key—in short, a man of ideas, cited as the source of queer and upsetting sayings, the enemy of all the comfortable and institutional standards by which the farmer lives, and withal, drawing fabulous salaries for two or three hours' talk per day during less than nine of the twelve months of the year. Annually the largest single item of expenditure out of the tax-levy was that for the University, for the benefit of this different and dangerous and heretical being, the professor. When, consequently, that shining mark, the "interests," who had been stealing the people's substance, had been quite subdued by the progressives, the people found another shining mark on the progressive side, consuming their substance brazenly before their very eyes. Taxes had gone up. The administration of the State had improved far more than correspondingly, but that was an irrelevant detail. The taxes were up. And what should be the cause of it but that great and shining mark, the University? Murmurings against the University became audible throughout the State. The initial suspicion of Demos against the professor was used by a fat man named Carey, who has no other obvious qualification for his important office, in his campaign for reëlection to the superintendency of schools. "The interests" being subdued, the unity induced by a common foe suffered; there appeared in the ranks of the progressives lines of division based on personal ambitions, jealousies, revenges. The University became a campaign issue. To its cost was added the accusation of its being in politics.

In the meantime the problems of legislation had changed from the remedial to the truly constructive. But could democracy ever be more than a knight errant? Could it, as a society, choose to live well rather than cheaply? There were innumerable problems to solve and programmes to define—in primary and rural education, in housing and sanitation, in amusement, in the whole art of life. But already Demos had shown itself restive under the cost of such State organization as it had. It housed its pigs better than its children, investigation showed, because pigs brought money. It preferred to grovel in disorder rather than pay for order. Nevertheless, the Board of Public Affairs went about the task of gathering data on which to base whatever intelligent action Demos would permit or command. They surveyed various administrative offices of the State, altered systems of bookkeeping, made savings. They surveyed the rural schools and the normal schools; they undertook to survey the University, all with the aim of showing that the people were getting an adequate return for their money, and to eliminate waste where such appeared.

As it did not occur to them that the people might not *want* what they were getting, their aim was, in so far forth, wise. But it is one thing to aim wisely; another to have the means whereby to realize the aim. Substantially, plant and faculty of the University constitute an organization of experts whose functions can be judged only by at least equally competent experts. The Board did try to obtain the services of C. W. Eliot, of Harvard, and of other authorities on university organization and administration. It succeeded in obtaining those of the now notorious Mr. W. H. Allen. This gentleman falls short of greatness only in the fact that there is such disproportion between his competence and his plausibility and assurance. The high hopes which many entertained when he undertook the task were soon shattered. Strain appeared in his relations with the officers of administration and instruction. He was accused of being shifty, devious, and moved by personal animosities. It was said that the survey was overlooking those things it should look over, and looking over those things it should overlook; that it was missing its aim, and through the wrongheadedness of the arch-surveyor. The survey consisted of a *questionnaire* for the faculty, another for the students, and of a visitation of the officers of administration by accountants and of instruction by persons culled from high and normal schools, from among recent graduates and undergraduates. These latter were to report upon the "efficiency" of the instruction in the University. The adequacy of the reports may be indicated by this extreme one, in which a surveyor sent to pass upon standards for the doctorate in a modern lan-

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guage, criticised a thesis for purporting in the title to deal with the poetic history of something, and doing so in prose. Within their limitations, however, the reports were honest and well-meant, some were even intelligent. Their futility was due to the methods of the survey, as well as the unfitness of the surveyors, who did their best. When they had finished, the faculty found itself called upon to correct their errors, which it did. Then Mr. Allen rearranged the corrected material so that in more cases than one its intent was entirely altered, and jerried together his final report. By this time the faculty found his work to be so untrustworthy that it felt itself compelled to draft a rejoinder, which has been printed with the report. And the Board of Public Affairs, which had employed him, found itself at such variance with him that it was compelled to drop him, and to prepare a report of its own.

Meanwhile the murmur "too much taxes" had become a chorus. It acted like a spring-tide charm. It awakened certain slumbering "interests" and other beauties. It swelled and gave substance to the general suspicion of the University, and encouraged untrammelled utterance of it. In the press, reports began to appear concerning the activities of a "Home Rule and Taxpayers' League," whose leader attributed to the faculty the same answerableness as that of the madmen in the State Hospital at Mendota. An agitation for economy, begun by the progressive wing in power to save itself, gathered head and got out of hand. About it the normal sentiment of the populace crystallized. It was a false issue, but it is the issue on which, at the November elections, the reactionaries came back to control. Now the State enjoys the spectacle of drunken legislators defending even less sober bills, all aiming at reprisal, at undoing the work of years in the name of economy. The brunt of the attack is borne, of course, by the progressive's great and shining mark, the University. On this attack Mr. Allen's report has not yet had time to exercise any influence (its making has thus far only intensified the demotic suspicions); but Mr. Van Hise's stand on conservation has. The "water-power men" are determined to "get him," if they can, and the lawmakers as a whole are determined to reduce the University to the innocuous academy and politician's pawn that it was before La Follette was ever heard of. There are bills to abolish the mill-tax, to change its government, to drive off non-resident students, to reduce appropriations, even to abolish the requirement of a foreign language for a degree. These things merely turn into practical channels the suspicion and uneasiness which Demos always experiences in the presence of intellect. Hearken to this saying, imputed to his Excellency Emanuel Philipp, Esquire, once railway lobbyist, now Governor of Wisconsin: "They may teach Socialism at the University, but they must not teach it with approval. We want our young men and our young women to come back to us as they left us."

Reaction? It is so called, but is it? Or is it the resurgence of that normal conservatism, that horror of ideas, that reliance on habit as against knowledge, on chance as against intelligence, which the war with the "interests" had so long suppressed?

OBSERVER.

Correspondence

"THIS IS MY WAR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In their effort to shift the responsibility for beginning the war from German to Russian shoulders, Teutonic apologists have asserted that Iswolsky, Russian Ambassador to France, declared in Paris, "This is my war." Dr. Dernburg stated it in Amherst last autumn. It found a place in an address, written by von Kánia, Austro-Hungarian Ambassador to Mexico, and delivered at Amherst by Mr. Charles Winter, of the Austro-Hungarian Consulate at New York. Dr. Fischerauer, of the same Consulate, writes me that he used it in addressing the German Scientific Club of New York last November. It figures again in a letter from Count Apponyi which appeared in a recent issue of the New York *Times*.

By writing to three of these gentlemen, I learn that Dr. Dernburg got the information from Dr. Fischerauer, who, in turn, had it from von Kánia, whose present residence in Mexico prevents communication with him. Dr. Fischerauer assures me, however, that von Kánia read the remark in "one of the French papers" and learned that it was made by Ambassador Iswolsky "at the outbreak of the war at an official dinner in Paris." He adds that it "has been reprinted in the papers all over Europe." Mr. Winter writes that "it was accepted and quoted by all our newspapers."

None of this evidence appeared convincing. I still wondered why, even if Russia were guilty, her sins should be publicly confessed by her Ambassador; why, if he confessed them, they should be spread abroad by a French newspaper. I also remembered having heard a similar statement ascribed to the Empress Eugénie in connection with the Franco-Prussian War. I wondered if this latter statement had been galvanized by some enterprising Austrian journalist in Paris for the benefit of Teutons, more patriotic than discriminating, or whether Iswolsky had made some reference to France's coming to the aid of Russia that might be twisted into an admission of offensive intentions.

To settle the matter I wrote to Ambassador Iswolsky himself, who has just replied that he never made the remark attributed to him or any other that might be used as a basis for it. I hope the publication of his most emphatic letter will put a definite end to erroneous citations of his words. It runs as follows:

"En réponse à votre lettre du 16 ct, je m'empresse de vous assurer qu'il est absolument faux que j'aie dit à qui que cela soit, en parlant de la guerre actuelle: 'C'est ma guerre,' ou que j'aie prononcé une phrase quelconque dans le même sens et ayant pu servir de base à l'imputation que vous me signalez."

H. CARRINGTON LANCASTER.

Amherst College, May 14.

VIVISECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of "An Ethical Problem," which recently appeared in your journal, I find matter which seems, in the interest of accuracy, to be worthy of further consideration. The high character of the *Nation* induces me to hope that for this purpose you will accord me the courtesy of your columns.

Is there any difference to be discerned between the statement made by Lord Lister in his address of 1881 and the letter which he wrote to me in 1910? You quote Lister as saying in his address that certain experiments were "of a character such as it would have been difficult to perform in London, so I resorted to Toulouse." Now, in his letter to me, Lister simply gave the reasons for going to Toulouse; the experiments had to be on large animals; the Veterinary College was at some distance from his residence; going to Toulouse was "a matter of convenience rather than of necessity," for he has no doubt that a license would have been granted him had he so desired. These two statements seem entirely consistent; what is there to make necessary the hypothesis of forgetfulness? If, in the earlier address, there was anything to justify the statement that Lister was "driven to Toulouse" because of the stringency of English laws, it is certainly not apparent from your quotation.

Referring to the views of Dr. Henry J. Bigelow, for over thirty years the professor of surgery at Harvard University, you say:

Dr. Leffingwell quotes at length from the statements of Dr. Bigelow to show the horrors of vivisection and his opposition to it. Dr. Keen points out that Dr. Bigelow refers to European work of the early nineteenth century, and that later, as anæsthesia came into general use, Bigelow changed his point of view, and expressed himself in favor of experiments on animals rendered insensible to pain by ether. *These later views of Bigelow find no place in the thirteen pages which Dr. Leffingwell devotes to Bigelow's address of* 1871.

The italicized words constitute a statement that is untrue. Its untruth and its consequent injustice may be easily demonstrated.

If you will turn to the ninth chapter of my work (pp. 119-125), you will discover that by far the greater part of the quotations were not taken from Dr. Bigelow's address delivered before the Massachusetts Medical Society in 1871, but from an essay written by him in 1890, the year of his death. He there argues for the legal supervision of animal experimentation for the reason that "vivisection, immeasurably beyond any other pursuit, involves the infliction of torture to little or no purpose," and declares that "in this relation there exists a case of cruelty to animals far transcending in its refinement and in its horror anything that has been known in the history of nations." These were among the opinions that he expressed the last year of his life. Have they ever been quoted by any advocate of unrestricted experimentation?

The suggestion has been put forth that at one time Dr. Bigelow was opposed to all experimentation upon living animals; and that this attitude of anti-vivisection was relinquished in later years. So far as we may gather from his published utterances, there is nothing whatever that can be brought forward in support of this theory. The address of 1871—so far as it touched vivisection at all—was devoted to opposing the introduction of laboratory methods for the teaching of physiology in

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medical schools. Regarding this, he spoke strongly, yet he did not condemn all experimentation upon animals. He asserted that a single experiment, even though cruel, might be justified by results, and declared that "the limit of such physiological experiment, in its utmost latitude, should be to establish truth in the hands of a skilful experimenter, with the greatest economy of suffering, and not to demonstrate it to ignorant classes, and encourage them to repeat it." Is this the language of anti-vivisection? Do the opponents of animal experimentation in our time suggest any such "limitations," within which it may be carried on? Between these words, written in 1871, and his latest views, written just before he died, there is not the slightest discrepancy.

There is another question, however, which should be asked. Was the extract from Dr. Bigelow's writings which led to that hypothesis of his later views printed accurately, or was it garbled? It consists only of three sentences. If one compares it as given in "Animal Experimentation and Surgical Progress" (p. 293) with the original statement in that volume of Dr. Bigelow's writings from which it was taken ("Surgical Anæsthesia," pp. 371-372), certain remarkable omissions will be discovered. As the quotation appears in the first-named work, we find one most significant sentence omitted entirely: "If all experiments in physiology were as painless as those of chemistry, there would be but one side to the question." Why was this sentence cut from its context? Was it because Bigelow there indicated that there were two sides to the question? And immediately following the assertion that "a painless experiment upon an animal is unobjectionable," Dr. Bigelow goes on to say:

> The extreme vivisector claims the liberty to inflict, at his discretion, protracted and excruciating pain upon any number of dogs, horses, rabbits, guinea-pigs, and other animals. The interest or honest enthusiasm he may happen to feel in some subject of physiology, however unimportant, justifies in his mind the exhibition of this excessive pain to classes, and its repetition by medical students, practically at their option. This is an abuse.

Here we have the charge of *abuse* among the last recorded utterances of the great medical teacher. If any one had greatly desired to give a full and complete expression of Dr. Bigelow's latest views, would he have selected three sentences, affirming the justification of painless experimentation, and cut them away from the sentences just quoted, affirming the existence of abuse? If they had been printed, it would have been difficult to have put forth the hypothesis of "later views" inconsistent with those held in earlier years. But, in my judgment, it is not by such suppression of truth that Science is to be advanced.

ALBERT LEFFINGWELL.

Aurora, N. Y., May 6.

[The objections raised by Dr. Leffingwell do not seem to affect the value or purpose of the review. That Lister found the obstacles to his researches in his own city so great that it was more "convenient" to travel hundreds of miles to Toulouse, notwithstanding the fatigue, time, and expense, seems to justify the statement that he was "driven to Toulouse." Moreover, though Lister in his letter to Leffingwell states (and Dr. Leffingwell emphasizes it by italics) that he had "given no account of it [his going to Toulouse] for publication," yet Lister *had* published it many years before (1881).

The quotation from Bigelow's "later" paper is certainly correct. Omissions in quotations, when indicated by stars, are always permitted. The omission of the one sentence referred to by Dr. Leffingwell does not seem to be material.

Dr. Leffingwell himself has omitted many portions from Bigelow's paper of 1890, one of which is of no little importance. On page 367 of Bigelow's volume occurs the sentence: "As for cerebral surgery, it is a curious subject for investigation, rather than a very profitable or a widely applicable one." This was penned several years after brain surgery had begun its triumphal progress. It is mentioned only to indicate the attitude of Dr. Bigelow towards modern progress.—THE REVIEWER.]

RUPERT BROOKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I append some verses upon a young man whose premature death has cheated the hopes of all who knew him. Rupert Brooke was already upon the threshold of that temple where only the immortal find entrance. Z.

California, May 10.

IN MEMORIAM RUPERT BROOKE.
DIED IN THE DARDANELLES 1915.

"If I should die, think only this of me,
That there's some corner of a foreign field
That is forever England."

RUPERT BROOKE.

Here a bit of England lies,
Quiet under alien skies.
Better poet never sang
Since the harp of Homer rang;
Nor knightlier spirit knew eclipse
Since Hector stormed against the ships.
How shall the weeping choir rehearse
His sacred courage in a verse?
The breath is faint, and low the head,
For he is dead—for he is dead.
Three thousand years, and yet again
By Troy Town march the ranks of men.
Three thousand years, and front to front
Gather the ships on Hellespont;
And yet, for all those years gone by,
The loveliest and the bravest die.
. . . . . .
Scarce a year since he drank our wine
And laughed with us in the candle-shine.
Touched in his talk on all good things,
The South Sea Isles, and the men at "Kings,"
Lighting with visionary gleams
The enchanted palace of his dreams.
Not more fair than his soul was fair
For all his beauty and tawny hair.
And we felt his presence consecrate
Anew the voices of England's great.
How his cheek would have burned with pride,
Had he known he would die as Byron died,
Giving his spirit all in fee
For the cause divine of liberty.
May God be very good to her
In Grantchester—in Grantchester.
. . . . . .
Who shall figure forth, or say
What further song he sings to-day?
Or with what elements divine
His spiritual parts combine?
If his soul mingles with the throng
Of the ascendant suns of song?
Or hides behind some fateful height
Its solemn loveliness of light?
Only I know, though the years roll
O'er that strong rival of my soul,
Though men misvalue him, yet I
Shall not forget him though I die.
Still I shall hold at its right worth
Hallowed his bit of English earth,
Who youth and strength and beauty gave,
His all for us. Christ keep the brave!

ANOTHER TRIBUTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Rupert Brooke died in active service in the Dardanelles on St. George's Day and was buried in Lemnos. For his friends and even acquaintances like myself the association with St. George seems not inappropriate, for his attitude to war was certainly that of one who felt it more of a compelling duty than a congenial pastime. His burying place connects him with ancient, if not with modern, Greece, and there was much of the ancient Greek in him. English poets, with a few exceptions like Sir Philip Sidney, have rarely fought or died for their country, whereas it was all in the day's work for the Greek poets. There was also perhaps something Greek in his appearance, which was as remarkable as everything else about him.

But he was fundamentally and typically English, an athlete at Rugby, rather shy by temperament, and late in development. By most of his friends he will always be best remembered in the quaint vicarage at Grantchester, with the delightful garden opening on one of the really romantic windings or rather wriggles of the Cam just below the mill and not far below Byron's Pool and opposite the little stream, wading through which he once towed me up in a canoe on a summer's day. In manner and in his general attitude to life he was conspicuously gentle and almost detached:

And think this heart, all evil shed away,
A pulse in the eternal mind, no less
Gives somewhere back the thoughts by England given;
Her sights and sounds; dreams happy as her day;
And laughter learnt of friends; and gentleness,
In hearts at peace under an English heaven.

This conclusion of his last published sonnet recalls all those memories of Grantchester vicarage and himself.

In those earlier days he was a teetotaler and a vegetarian, yet one only heard that from others and was never otherwise aware of it. The fact only seemed to reinforce the almost Shelleyan atmosphere that seemed to surround him. He was a stalwart Liberal, and, as I should have thought, of a pacific and cosmopolitan turn of mind. At our very last meeting just before the war I remember his praising the German administration of Samoa, and he knew and appreciated Germany and the Germans, even if the hideousness of a Berlin café did by sheer contrast evoke his inspired poem on Grantchester. A recent article of his in the *New Statesman* admirably analyzed the bewilderment of the war and his own conflicting memories of Germany and the Germans until the mere thought of English soil being violated drowned every other. It is a wonderful piece of prose which should be read as a whole and will no doubt be soon accessible in a collected edition of his writings.

There was in him underneath all the apparent detachment a great quality of compassion. He was haunted by memories of the refugees flying from Antwerp as he actually saw them while on duty there. Yet even during the war he could and did write quite judicially about the German administration of Samoa. He never forced his note either in verse or prose, just as he was never sentimental in the inferior sense of the word, and his humor always rang true. In all this, and especially in his good fellowship, he represent-

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ed the best type of Englishman. He was responsive to all, though there was also something elusive about him even when he appeared intimate. One likes to remember and record this in view of the common notion that the artist is necessarily freakish.

He was typical not only of England but also of his generation. The slim little (1911) volume of poems contains frequent references to death and whimsical fancies about what might come after. I never talked to him of death, but I certainly got the impression that he had no conviction of any real survival, and that this lent a certain poignancy to the enjoyment of all he loved in this life; and he enjoyed life to the full with an epicurean faculty for enjoyment.

> We are earth's best, that learn her lesson here.
> Life is our cry. We have kept the faith! we said,
> We shall go down with unreluctant tread
> Rose-crowned into the darkness!

are lines that he puts into the mouth of a lover, and on which he was ready to act when the occasion called. One of the last sonnets on those who died in the war perhaps best expresses his idea of death, and though often quoted already the final lines will bear quotation again:

> There are waters blown by changing winds to laughter
> And lit by the rich skies, all day. And after,
> Frost with a gesture stays the waves that dance
> And wandering loveliness. He leaves a white
> Unbroken glory, a gathered radiance,
> A width, a shining peace, under the night.

Fine as the image is, it brings but cold comfort to those who knew and therefore loved the poet. In the last few years his personality had developed as richly as his work. Scattered all over the world there must be many who mourn the loss of himself far more than anything else, and for whom, merely as a human being, his own lines from "The Great Lover" now have a new meaning:

> My night shall be remembered for a star
> That outshone all the suns of all men's days.

E. S. P. Haynes.

New York, May 20.

THE "CHESTER PLAYS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The complete manuscripts of the "Chester Plays" are dated from 1591 to 1607, only the "Antichrist" existing in an earlier manuscript, which is assigned to 1475-1500 (Chambers, "Mediæval Stage," II, 407; Manly, "Spec. Pre-Shak. Drama," I, 170). The "New English Dictionary" assigns the cycle to about 1500, but recent writers on the subject have inclined to the first half of the fourteenth century (Pollard, "English Miracle Plays," p. xxxvi; Chambers, *op. cit.*, II, 352; Gayley, "Plays of Our Forefathers," p. 132; Hemingway, "English Nativity Plays," pp. xxi-xxiii). Perhaps this view may receive additional confirmation from a passage in the "Sermon Against Miracle-Plays," published by Halliwell in the "Reliquiæ Antiquæ" (1845), and reprinted by Mätzner in his "Altenglische Sprachproben." The author, supposed to be a Wycliffite, and to have written in the fourteenth century, refers to such as say, "Pley we a pley of Anticrist and of the Day of Dome" ("Rel. Ant.," II, 48; Mätzner, II, 232). Now the only cycle of plays which contains an "Antichrist," as well as a "Doomsday," is that of Chester. It is, therefore, natural, though not strictly necessary, to assume that it is the "Chester Plays" which the writer had in mind; and this, if allowed, would refer them to a period not very long after 1350, at latest.

Albert S. Cook.

Yale University, March 27.

TENNYSON'S "LIGHT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With reference to Mr. More's interesting remarks on the predominance of the wind in Tennyson's world of poetry, there seems to me hardly room for doubt that in the exclamation "O light upon the wind" the word "light" is the adjective (the contrary of heavy) rather than the noun. The ghost of Gawaine—the Gawaine of the "Morte d'Arthur" and of the "Idylls"—would justly suffer the restless torment which Dante saw imposed on those who had loved inordinately, and the connection seems inevitable between Tennyson's thought and the line:

> E paion sè al vento esser leggieri.

George De C. Curtis.

Foster, Cal., March 4.

Literature

TWO ITALIAN IDEALISTS.

The Idealistic Reaction Against Science. By Professor Aliotta. Translated by Agnes McCaskill. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3.

The Great Problems. By Bernardino Varisco. Translated by R. C. Lodge. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.75 net.

Know Thyself. By Bernardino Varisco. Translated by Guglielmo Salvadori. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.75 net.

In spite of a marked difference in manner and style, a considerable unanimity of motive is to be found in the doctrines of the two philosophers who are here (both, apparently, in excellent translation) introduced to English readers. It is in the broader sense of the term that we call them "idealists." Each, indeed, explicitly rejects both the subjectivism of Berkeley, which makes nature a series of images in one's mind, and the abstract intellectualism of Hegel, for whom nature is the unfolding of an idea. "Spiritualistic realism" is the name adopted by Aliotta for his own philosophy, and the name may well be applied to both. In both philosophies consciousness, or spirit, gives the key to the world, while both teach that the things of nature are as independent of the person who knows them as one person is of another. Each, on the other hand, makes certain concessions to pragmatism, to the extent, at least, of refusing to divorce knowledge from will. Altogether, then, the two philosophies present an interesting and rather logical sequel to recent philosophical movements: Idealism meets the criticisms of pragmatism and realism by making its own use of their more positive results.

"The Idealistic Reaction Against Science," by Professor Aliotta, of the University of Padua, is a timely and very readable contribution to the history and criticism of an important contemporary movement. For some time past both the philosophy of knowledge and the scientific and mathematical inquiries into the foundations of science have been leading to the conclusion that in the question of the status and significance of science lies the central problem for modern thought. Of this many-sided movement, which Aliotta shows to have more aspects than one might suspect, his "Idealistic Reaction" is the first comprehensive study. His treatment is based upon a detailed study of the literature, to which he gives his reader access. According to him, the several parties to the movement, English neo-Hegelianism, the voluntarism of Wundt and others, the value-philosophy of the German neo-Kantians, Anglo-American pragmatism, Bergsonian intuitionism, the new realism, and even the scientific contributions, such as the new mathematics, Duhem's new qualitative physics, and Ostwald's energetics—all of these are but so many reactions against the intellectualism of older science, so many endeavors to escape the limitations of a strictly mechanical theory of the universe.

Aliotta's own reaction, summarized all too briefly in the closing chapter, consists in affirming the cognitive and "realistic" significance of scientific conceptions, including the mechanical conception, against all who define them merely as instruments of human convenience; and then in affirming the reality of human consciousness, and its fundamental significance for an interpretation of the world, against all who would make it an "epiphænomenon" in an exclusively mechanical world. Mechanical science is indeed a human product, one (but only one) of the many ways by which we make nature intelligible. But making nature intelligible consists in bringing out the latent intelligence of nature; an unintelligent nature would be unintelligible. This means that Aliotta's "spiritualistic realism" is open to the charge of anthropomorphism. Aliotta meets the charge by defending the logic of anthropomorphism and by showing that all scientific conceptions, even those that are apparently the most cold-blooded, are anthropomorphic. Haeckel's one substance is not less anthropomorphic than the idea of a personal God. One must distinguish, however, between a sound and unsound anthropomorphism. Unhappily, with the announcement of this most significant distinction, the story closes.

In an appendix to "The Great Problems," Prof. Bernardino Varisco, of the University of Rome, makes the candid avowal that "the fatigue which I have imposed upon my readers is, however, really excessive"—and "Know Thyself" was still to be read. Perhaps it is too much to expect that a system of metaphysics interwoven with such a variety of *motifs* should be easy reading. And the style of this highly scholastic writer is sufficiently relieved by shrewd observation and by glimpses here and there of a quaint and pleasing personality to save him from being quite dull. It is more diffi-

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cult to estimate the total result. He is not vague, like his prototype, Hegel. The difficulty is rather that, like an expert calculator working out a problem, when the path ahead is clear to himself, he says "therefore" and leaves the reader to wonder.

Varisco, like his fellow-countryman, Croce, may be called a pragmatic Hegelian. That is to say, the world is a process of logical development, of development towards self-consciousness. But, as against Hegel, the logical process is not abstractly intellectual. In Varisco's view, thought and will are combined in the conception of "activity," and all activity is a personal activity. The world, then, is not an unfolding, but a creation. And creation involves resistance.

Resistance to what? Evidently this is the chief of the "great problems." And the body of his argument is a series of demonstrations to explain how the parallel contrasts of subject and object, of person and thing, of unity (of the conscious person) and multiplicity (of objects known), of logical and causal determination, and of determination and spontaneity, are involved in the nature of a self-conscious and personal universe. If, for example, you ask Varisco to explain why, in a purely rational universe, there should be series of events which are merely caused, and not logically motived, his reply, not unconvincing as far as it goes, will consist in showing that, apart from the contrast with cause, logic is inconceivable. His favorite formula, however, is that which defines the world as a system of spontaneities—both the system and the spontaneities being personal—or a system of primitive unities: "logically" primitive, in a sense not clearly explained. And the kernel of his whole argument appears to lie in the statement, more or less intelligible, but again not sufficiently elaborated, that, apart from the spontaneities, there would be no course of events, no movement, no life, no world. The "spontaneities" furnish the basis for his realism.

Yet (since the world is a unity) each of the spontaneities is a centre, and apparently a determining centre, of the universe: know thyself, and thou shalt know the universe. This leads us to ask again, Whence arises the resistance? The answer is given in the statement that, although the universe as a whole is completely self-conscious, the several spontaneities are each only partly self-conscious. The unity of my "person," for example, extends to the physiological adjustments within my body, which are, from my point of view, merely sub-conscious. This sub-consciousness isolates, more or less, the individual spontaneities, one from another, and creates the resistance which, in marking off the knowing person from the object known, is also the ground of error and evil.

After this result it is not easy to see why the author emphasizes his dissent from Royce. Both are confronted finally with the problem of explaining why a perfectly self-conscious universe permits itself to be "infected" (to use Mr. Bradley's favorite word) with darkness and division. Granting that error and evil can be attributed to a partial self-consciousness (and thus conceived as negative quantities), still, why this sub-consciousness? Professor Royce seems hardly to have raised this final question. Professor Varisco faces it frankly and replies, "I do not know." This shows that he is successful in carrying out the principle of "know thyself." It shows also that, not less than Royce, he has studied the situation deeply. And—unless all philosophy is to be thrown into the bankruptcy court—we may not declare his analysis worthless because it is not finally complete.

CURRENT FICTION.

A Cloistered Romance. By Florence Olmstead. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is a rural-humorous idyl in a somewhat uncommon setting—for America. For here is a real cloister, a convent of "Little Sisters," with the not too unfamiliar types of religieuse, headed by the Mother Superior of worldly antecedents. It has, however, its direct connection with the world in a home for incapacitated old men, which is supported by begging. One of these charges, Mr. Samuel, is, unhappily, from his point of view, not sufficiently incapacitated to prevent his being made a sort of factotum, coachman, gardener, and what not. An occasional spree is his solace and revenge. He is the comic lead of the piece. The romantic hero, like the heroine, is an outsider, for the romance is rather occasioned by the cloister than involved with its life. Mr. Samuel, getting drunk, runs over one Paget, a young man, who is taken to the convent and there nursed. To the convent comes by habit Alethea, a youthful Lady Bountiful. Though Paget is obviously a gentleman, she exercises that generous blindness which makes so many things possible for the hard-working story-teller or playwright. She takes it for granted that he cannot be a socially eligible person, but must be a sort of poor relation, to be condescended to and "helped." Of course, Paget is really a prince—or its modern equivalent, a millionaire—in disguise. Alethea never suspects that he is anything but a pauper to the day when, leaving the convent, he makes the Little Sisters a gift of $10,000. Thereafter, of course, it only remains for chance or Providence to throw the pair together for a moment, in order to bring them together for all time.

The Primrose Ring. By Ruth Sawyer. New York: Harper & Bros.

Sweetness is the term that most readily occurs to characterize the quality of this first novel by an author who has already done creditable work in occasional verse and short stories. The term, however, must not be misunderstood as containing any implication of a sugary sentimentality. It is rather a kind of moral sanitation, corresponding to the material sweetness of the ward of the well-conducted hospital in which the action takes place. And that was precisely what was wrong with St. Margaret's, and particularly with the attitude of its trustees towards the ward in which gentle Margaret Maclean ministered to nine little incurable children; the sweetness was all material; nothing could exceed the scientific excellence of the conduct of the hospital, but to the businesslike trustees and to the brilliant senior-surgeon the children were just "cases." The deficiency was remedied by Margaret, who was in the best possible position to realize it, for she herself had been one of the "incurables" and owed present strength and beauty to the "old" senior-surgeon who had showed forth spiritual faith in scientific works, and while tending the bodies of crippled children had not forgotten the existence of their souls. The purpose of Miss Sawyer's little story is thus sufficiently revealed. For its unfolding she has chosen the medium of what her publishers accurately describe as "a grown-up fairy tale." The story is told with an artless simplicity in which there lurks considerable literary art, and if any prospective reader finds himself prejudiced (as the present reviewer admits that he usually is) by the revelation that he has been inveigled into reading a "book with a purpose," the human quality of the story, its tender blending of pathos and humor, and the occasional gentle but effective irony will soon disarm him of the triple brass behind which he guards his sentiments.

The Hand of Peril. By Arthur Stringer. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Mr. Stringer has tried the stops of various typewriters, but none so successfully, from the gross commercial point of view, as the adventure-tale stop. He is now able to play it by the touch method—without looking, and without much thinking. It is, for that matter, a peculiarity of this kind of writing that it may be effectively done by formula. Crook story; special field counterfeiting; secret agent of American Treasury Department on the trail; girl-crook who has believed herself man-crook's daughter, and has been trained by him till she is greatest forger and counterfeiter in world's history; objects, to confound man-crook and his knavish tricks, and to marry girl-crook and said agent—after a sufficient amount of more or less ingenious pother arranged to administer thrills and suspense to the susceptible or willingly obtuse reader. Mr. Stringer is quite equal to this not very exacting task, and goes about it with amusing nonchalance. He knows what is *not* necessary, to fuss about probabilities. When his hero, by the exercise of the most amazing reasoning powers, and by the most adroit physical arrangements, has brought his victim to the edge of confusion, that sinister person must always be permitted to escape in order that the tale may go on; therefore, the secret agent (with a reputation on two continents) always forgets one obvious precaution. The villain escapes, and the game proceeds. Nor is novelty in detective methods strained for. Listening at keyholes is varied by the short cir-

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cuit and the dictaphone. Our hero is also one of those now commonplace gentlemen who open safe "combinations" with the aid of the auditory nerve. It may be admitted to his credit that he does not use sandpaper on his finger-tips. Gun-play also has its harmless necessary part in the action, which is punctuated by spurts of flame and muffled reports altogether out of proportion to the bloodshed recorded. Does the author put his tongue in his cheek every time he calls a revolver a "fire-arm"?

Parsival. By Gerhart Hauptmann. Translated by Oakley Williams. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1 net.

The familiar legend is here told with variations and with specific hints at application to modern conditions which intensify its allegorical significance. What these are cannot be pointed out in detail. They are expressed in the spirit of the story rather than its narrative outline. It is sufficient for the main import of the book to quote the words of Gornemant to Parsival, son of Heartache, when the latter has finally won, not to the Grail, but to the castle where he imagined that the Grail was: "The Grail is in the world an alien miracle. Many say Salvator is a realm founded in the air, because, so they say, peace dwells above the clouds, but war upon earth. Now in the air are lightnings, the fruitful rain, the radiance of the light, of the stars, of the moon, of the dawn, and of the sunset. What man could live and not drink air? Who without air could see and hear? Who could think, believe, know aught of the world, were his playground not in the free realm of the spirit? Deem, as thou wilt, the world, Grail, peace, and Salvator, to be no more than a realm in the air, if but we believe that with its secret churches, its peace, its bliss, and its shining paladins, it is." The translation is faithful to the simplicity and grace of the German.

The Competitive Nephew. By Montague Glass. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Of this new collection of tales by the author of "Potash and Perlmutter" not much need be said except that it is worthy of that authority on "cloak and suit" romance. The cunning, the humor, the infinite resourcefulness of the trading Jew on Broadway are again dealt with amusingly and keenly. The types here embodied have been embodied often by Mr. Glass and others, but the people we meet are as individual as, no doubt, the members of the crowd along lower Fifth Avenue at the noon hour are, beneath the surface likeness. Max Fatkin is quite different from his partner, Sam Zaretsky, though they have the common desire to beggar their neighbors, or at least to outwit them, as the most interesting move offered by the game of life. Seiden, who makes the mistake of taking his wife's family on his shoulders; Lesengeld, the money-shark, who is so easily moved to tears by moving-picture pathos, and prides himself upon the fact; Gembitz, the old glutton, who is still too strong for his scheming offspring; Eschenbach, the philanthropic, who efficiently combines charity and advertising; the various young clerks, stenographers, salesmen, whose mating is always so adroitly adjusted to the main chance—these are all persons, not lay figures for the author to hang a humorous commentary upon. As the book is made up of ten perfectly separate stories, cause for printing them as "chapters" does not appear, unless the author wishes them to be taken together as an exhaustive if not thorough treatment of a whole human order.

THE SPANIARDS IN AMERICA.

The Spanish Dependencies in South America. By Bernard Moses. New York: Harper & Brothers. Two vols. $5 net.

The author has divided the history of Spanish rule in South America into three periods, and has made the second, that extending from 1550 to 1730, the object of his special study. Examining in particular the development of political organization under the Spanish monarchy, he has included only so much of the earlier records of discovery and exploration as throws light upon this question. The first volume is, therefore, largely based on the "Establishment of Spanish Rule in America," a work published by Professor Moses in 1898 and favorably regarded by historical students ever since. Topics have been rearranged, and such pages as have been transferred to the present work have for the most part been rewritten. Similar revision has adapted some chapters from "South America on the Eve of Emancipation," published in 1908, but a large portion of this book is excluded as falling outside the period under treatment. The rule has been applied less strictly in the first volume, which contains a dozen chapters dealing with events prior to 1550, the beginning of this period. Certain chapters deal with the institutions by which the Spanish colonies were governed; and the Council of the Indies, the Casa de Contratacion or "India House," the Audiencia and the Viceroy, and the Colonial City are discussed in detail. Much of the material set forth is accessible in other works, but the treatise on the Colonial City should be of great use to the student of Spanish-American history, who is apt to be puzzled by the mechanism of municipal organization divorced from popular control. Considerable attention is given to the records of academic foundations in South America, and there is a chapter on the clergy and the schools in Chili; but the educational annals of the period are rather trivial and depressing.

It is evident that the consolidation effected in these volumes has increased the value of this work over its predecessors by improved facilities for reference; and there is some gain in the scholarly apparatus inserted. The compilation includes material drawn from articles by Professor Moses which have appeared in various learned periodicals. It does not appear that the author's opinions on political and social questions have been essentially modified since his earlier works were published; and those who have differed with Professor Moses on some points must admit that his doctrine has the support of matured scholarship and extensive study in his part of the historical field.

The religious factor in the progress of Spanish America is duly recognized in chapters on the relations between the church and the civil authorities, the activities of the Inquisition in different provinces, and the Jesuit reductions in Paraguay. It is shown that the missionary spirit soon declined to the extent of exacting fees and perquisites for religious ministrations, and that the multiplication of convents and the observance of saints' days were opposed to the economic progress of the colonies. The decrees of the eighteenth century forbidding the allotment of parishes to members of religious orders are cited as measures of reformation, though the contrary practice in the Philippines is not mentioned. The Inquisition is roundly described as "the most diabolical of human institutions," and it is shown that the power of confiscating the property of accused persons for the benefit of its tribunals made these almost independent of viceroys and the civil courts. The tutelage of the Indians of Paraguay by the Jesuits, with the enforced "habit of settled life and regular work," is indicated as a promising experiment in civilizing an inferior race, but no verdict is given, because the Jesuit control was interrupted before it had lasted the thousand years required for success. The economic aspect of ecclesiastical government is not fully treated, as there is no mention of the revenue that the Kings of Spain derived from the bulls of the Santa Cruzada, which the clergy had to sell to colonists and natives as a special form of indulgence.

The author does not conceal his distrust of the policy which led to the issue of the New Laws of 1542, by which the Indians were to be released from bondage. He attributes them to the zeal of "the unwise yet well-intentioned Las Casas"; and the revoking of them after Peru had rebelled and Mexico had protested meets with his approval. Admitting the "insatiable avarice" of the Spanish adventurers and the sufferings of the Indians—the iniquities of the *mita* system in Peru about 1730 are reported—Professor Moses seems to attribute the humanitarian movement associated with the name of Las Casas to "the ecclesiastical fanaticism that had been engendered by the war against the Moors." But there was no lack of prelates and friars to take the side of the *encomenderos* and to support measures that set the Indians at work for the advantage of their oppressors. Inquisitors and others who were *ex-officio* fanatics were found as grasping as other officials, though the Dominican order followed the lead of Las Casas in some of the provinces.

Little space is given to the foreign relations of the Spanish dependencies, though it

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is plain that the policy of their rulers in regard to commerce, to military and naval defence, to ecclesiastical and educational affairs, and all internal and external control, was guided by the Spanish dread of interlopers and heretics. Spanish chroniclers have led Professor Moses to call such interlopers pirates or filibusters; he does not speak of buccaneers, and he makes no allowance for public war and letters of marque. Thus Drake is called a pirate in the notice of his capture of Cartagena after Elizabeth had commissioned him to plunder the Spaniards; and the men whom Ducasse, an officer in the navy of Louis XIV long before 1697 and a knight of the Golden Fleece in later years, led to the pillage of the same city were also in the royal service. Drake seems to have been a pirate when he raided the Isthmus of Panama, and no commission for his voyage round the world has yet been discovered; but his naval standing after 1585 is unquestionable. Of the attempt to prevent his ravages after 1578 by sending Sarmiento to fortify the Strait of Magellan an inadequate account is given. The action with Fenton's ships on the coast of Brazil did not involve the destruction of the Spanish squadron or the capture of Sarmiento, who was taken by a privateer equipped by "Guateral," that is, Sir Walter Raleigh, after the war had begun. Of Raleigh and his search for El Dorado there is no mention; and Guiana and Brazil, except for unfruitful voyages and the raids of certain unidentified Mamelucos, are left out of the picture.

Panama is made the subject of an early chapter, and the raids of Morgan in 1670 and Vernon in 1739 are recounted; and there is a narrative of Anson's voyage to the Pacific. Other exploits and rumors of war are slighted. It may be well to omit Jenkins and his ear, but Sir Robert Walpole's effort to keep the peace with Spain deserves notice. The Puritan settlement on the Isle of Providence, whence traffic between Cartagena and the Isthmus was harassed about 1640, and the notable attempt of the Scots to occupy Darien are not mentioned. The strategic and commercial importance of the Isthmus, which was plain to so many eager intellects from Duplessis-Mornay to Patterson, the promoter of New Caledonia, is not made apparent by Professor Moses, who attempts few generalizations, even in the economic field, and has not much to say of *flotas* or the galleons of the Indian Guard, the first naval force fit for cruising across the Atlantic. His chapter on Travel and Transportation tells only of roads and rivers of no permanent significance, and the passage of the treasure fleets to Havana and Seville escapes discussion.

Professor Moses is understood to have travelled extensively in South America and to have searched European archives in preparation for this work. The text hardly contains any evidence of either journey. The trade routes by sea are not indicated, and the Andes hardly appear above the horizon. Scarcely anything is cited on the authority of manuscripts, and one is left in doubt as to whether all the available material in print has been consulted. Certainly, something would have been gained by comparing English with Spanish documents, and by reference to such modern works as those of Julian Corbett and Arthur Helps, neither of whom is cited.

When the earlier work incorporated in these volumes was reviewed, the author was warned against "careless citation" and urged to prepare a bibliography of his subject. Neither hint was effectual: Professor Moses can still write "Hakluyt, xxiv," as a reference to a certain volume printed for the Hakluyt Society. He consults works edited by Markham and quotes that writer's opinions, even when expressed in unseemly terms; but he does not mention Helps's great book on the Spanish Conquest, though Prescott and Robertson are taken as authorities. There are a few bibliographical notes of value, but they are not made accessible for comparison.

The bibliography is wanting, and the index, though it runs to twenty-seven pages, fails to supply the deficiency. Spanish proper names offer many pitfalls for the unwary, some of which can hardly be avoided without cross-references. The list of discoverers at the beginning of the first chapter has a variety of such errors, and the index multiplies the lapses. Surnames are often clipped of all additions in the entries; and, though Spanish titles abound in the text, the index rarely connects them with personal names, and it sometimes gives items under both name and title—without references to connect them. English names have no better fate, Selkirk being indexed as "Alexander." Many names are misspelled in text or index, and the vital accents so rationally applied in Spanish are capriciously handled. The scraps of Spanish in the notes are often printed at random. No punctilious Spaniard would call himself *"cabellero,"* for instance. Doubtless the originals were diligently read, but the student cannot dispense with proof-reading. These things detract from the utility of a substantial and valuable piece of work.

AN AID TO REGULATION OF RATES.

Railroad Accounting. By William E. Hooper. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2 net.

Ever since the amendment of the Interstate Commerce Act in 1906 made possible the development of a uniform accounting system among the railways of the country, by clothing the Commission with mandatory powers, students and practitioners of accounting have watched with interest the progress of this work. The railway is our greatest industry. In some particulars its problems in accounting are unique, but in most respects the principles adopted have been found of value as models for other businesses. It is, therefore, of distinct worth to have these principles and the practice based thereon, which have been evolved by the officials of the Commission in conference with the railways, put into convenient form for use. Mr. Hooper, however, has done more than this. While making the Commission's accounting system the basis of his discussion, he has not hesitated to point out its shortcomings and to suggest new lines of development.

If it is possible to summarize the author's criticisms of the present Commission's system of railway accounts, the indictment will be something like this. The primary purpose which the Commission had in mind in constructing this system of accounts was to furnish information that should be an aid to rate regulation. A secondary purpose was to furnish information to investors. Only incidentally did they consider the needs of the management for efficient operation. If it were possible entirely to divorce accounting and statistics, it would not be necessary to go into any elaborate analysis of primary accounts, such, for example, as the detail of expenses of transportation service. But if railway accounting is fully to meet the demands made upon it, the accounts must be made the basis of current statistical information required by the management for operating purposes, and this information becomes more imperative as the systems become larger. It is just here that the Commission's accounts fail. They are from this standpoint only in the first stages of development, for they do not make possible the extracting of that detailed information which is vital to the setting off of one road from another in its physical operation and its managerial efficiency.

One chapter is devoted to the burning question of the allocation of expense between passenger and freight service. While conceding that in other businesses cost accounting has proved to be of immense value, notwithstanding that a large volume of overhead charge has had to be arbitrarily assigned, Mr. Hooper points out the significant fact that, while results of such accounting in a factory are its own private concern, railways are public service corporations, all their accounts are open to public inspection, and the danger of misinterpretation and misuse by the public of these arbitrarily constructed cost figures is ever present. The problem is critically examined; the so-called "Oklahoma scheme" is elaborately explained, and as a plan is in general approved. The difficulty is to obtain a sufficiently intelligent and competent corps of accountants to put it into practice.

From a study of actual railway accounts the author concludes that if the advocates of physical valuation expect to show that the value of railway property is less than its capitalization at present, they will be pretty surely disappointed.

The book will be found decidedly helpful by students and practical accountants. Its general plan is to discuss in order the primary accounts of the Commission's classification with some reference to the English practice, and to follow each discussion with

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the verbatim text issued by the Commission. Chapters are devoted to the organization of the railway accounting department and the treasurer's office, and to the detailed methods of auditing revenues and disbursements, illustrated by forms used in several of the larger accounting offices.

PREPAREDNESS.

Our Navy and the Next War. By Robert Wilson Neeser. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 net.

It is impossible lightly to thrust aside this readable little book. Such a procedure is forbidden by its importance as presenting one side of an absorbing topic, by its earnestness of tone, and by the character of its author, who has made the history and development of our navy his life-study. Both he and his work may fairly claim respectful consideration even when complete acceptance of his views cannot be accorded.

The economic proposition involved is restated by him in the words of the General Board, "that any navy less than adequate is an expense to the nation without being a protection." To this proposition consent cannot be legitimately denied. The author asks: "Can any man really believe that such policies as the Monroe Doctrine, the exclusion of Asiatics, and the guarantees of the neutrality of the Panama Canal can be enforced by a court of arbitration? Yet these three great policies of American diplomacy are our policies of self-defence." Answering his own question in the negative, he proceeds to base upon these policies his subsequent labors and his pleas for a more efficient navy, enlarged if necessary to meet the demand, for he recognizes, as do all who look into the matter, that the size of our navy is not to be determined by the desires, patriotic or personal, of its officers to prepare for any possible contingency, but rather by the requirements of these fixed principles so firmly held by the American people as a whole. A fourth policy is added incidentally when he discusses the means of retaining the Philippines, a subject which forms part of Asiatic exclusion.

Respect for the Monroe Doctrine is not, he believes, held in Germany, nor can that Power, if triumphant in the present wars, be expected to observe the neutrality of the Panama Canal. The precedent of Belgium is pertinent. It would seem as if German defeat, combined with our abandonment of the Philippines, might relieve us of a considerable portion of our naval burden—a consummation devoutly to be wished—but these happenings lie in the future, and to shape our national defence in reliance upon them would, according to the author, be gambling pure and simple. What is to be done, then? On this point he has no doubts.

The book is commendably free from personal criticism of those responsible for a naval policy which has produced a number of ships, but no fleet properly organized, manned, trained, and equipped; which has openly subordinated the fleet to the navy yards for political purposes, and which annually wastes vast sums of money (variously estimated at from twenty to forty millions of dollars) debited to the navy, but of no earthly value to the fleet.

His harshest references are: "Our navy yards are so congested with work, and the hand of the politician rules there so strongly, that even the supreme influence of the commander-in-chief of the Atlantic fleet has been powerless to limit the prolonged stay of ships at navy yards," and "In many of the items of an appropriation bill, framed in a Committee of Congress, Congressmen may have more than a political or national interest. Much of this money is to be spent in their own Congressional districts. They have fathered such of these items and have insisted, maybe, against the sound technical advice of military men, that these items remain in the bill, threatening, if they should be removed, that their vote would be cast against items in the bill that are more vital to the welfare of the nation." A weighty indictment nevertheless.

The remedy for this regrettable state of affairs is, says the author, to provide the navy with what Mr. Root gave the army—a General Staff. This measure has long been advocated, but it was so tainted at the outset by individual motives that the navy would not have it at any price. To-day it may be discussed on its merits free from personalities. If hedged in and kept in its due place, it may prove invaluable, giving expert advice on technical topics which no Secretary of the Navy can hope to master and supplying a continuity of aim and effort now sadly lacking. There need be no fear of subordinating the civil to the military, but, as the editor of the *Army and Navy Journal* recently remarked, in effect: While the Constitution rightly insisted upon the subordination of the military to the civil, it did not mean to subordinate military knowledge to civilian ignorance. In the words of our author, "whenever a statesman at the head of the administration of our military departments assumes that his position gives him the right of making military decisions, he materially weakens the efficiency of that instrument of power which he should consider it his duty to increase."

Dwelling upon the ghastly, colossal price of unpreparedness already paid in previous wars in lives, treasure, pensions, the author urges general military training (not service). This is a debatable topic, with much to be said on either side. He believes that "the freest discussion on all military topics by officers of both services should be encouraged, such writings to be signed by the authors, for which they would assume the entire responsibility. . . . Sealing the lips of those capable of giving the truth, we have encouraged scare-head articles upon our naval preparedness, which carry little weight and make no lasting impression upon the minds of the people." Quite true. Moreover, sobriety of statement would replace frantic forecasts of national disaster. The quite universal and exaggerated appreciation of material over personnel Mr. Neeser illustrates by the comparative readiness of Congress to vote ships and its unwillingness to vote the officers and men to man them.

The book, which is one long plea for preparedness, not for militarism, should be attentively read by all who take interest in the immediate future of our country, whether jingoes or pacifists. It is a tragic, world-wide pity that it had to be written at all, but the times are too portentous to warrant shutting our eyes to the truth as seen by this student of affairs or to refuse to listen to a man who, rightly or wrongly, believes that abiding peace can only be secured by a firm, consistent, honorable foreign policy enforced, if need be, by an adequate navy.

Notes

The publication of "The Double Traitor," by E. Phillips Oppenheim, and "Mary Moreland," by Marie Van Vorst, is announced by Little, Brown & Co.

The Oxford University Press announces the publication in the Oxford English Texts (library editions) of "The Complete Works of Henry Vaughan" (two volumes), edited by L. C. Martin, and "The Poetical Works of Robert Herrick," edited by F. W. Moorman.

"Eye-Witness's Narrative of the War," containing all the descriptive accounts by "an eye-witness present with General Headquarters," issued by the British Press Bureau up to the end of March, is announced for immediate publication by Longmans, Green & Co.

The Century Co. announces for publication next month "The Indiscreet Letter," by Eleanor Hallowell Abbott, and "The Note Book of an Attaché," by Eric Fisher Wood.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce the forthcoming publication of the following volumes: "Edgar Chirrup," by Peggy Webling; "A Campaign Against Consumption," by Arthur Ransome; "Infant Mortality," by Hugh T. Ashby; "Aunt Sarah and the War" (anonymous); "The Decoration and Furnishing of Apartments," by B. Russell Herts.

The former low estimate of the number and importance of English schools in the Middle Ages has of late been gradually abandoned, giving way to the truer view, that post-Reformation institutions were merely the development of a long-existing system. Of this later development much has been written; of the long period of preparation that preceded it, so far as we know, no comprehensive description has been attempted. It is this relatively neglected field that A. F. Leach has made his own in "The Schools of Medieval England" (Macmillan; $2). We have no space here to do more than glance at the contents of this most interesting book, which carries us from the Roman schools of grammar and rhetoric, in which the Fathers of the Church, no less than Cicero and Horace, received their education, to the Golden Age, scholastically speaking, of Henry VIII, "the most highly educated person for his time who ever sat upon the throne of England." From the Roman schools our modern system

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is truly derived. The early Christian Church took no interest in learning for learning's sake. Quintilian's "Institutio Oratoria" discusses education from an almost modern standpoint whither pedagogy had later to retrace its steps, slowly and painfully, while culture was struggling upward from her lowly estate as the handmaid of religion. During the Roman period the Church depended on the pagan schools for the education of its leaders. "Catechetical schools, so called, were nothing more than courses of lectures to catechumens, who, whether they were converts or long-standing Christians, were grown-up people being prepared for baptism by catechesis. . . . In the first three centuries of the Christian church no one dreamt of baptizing infants." After the abandonment of England by the Romans, schools and Christianity seem alike to have been swept away. Augustine and the later missionaries found education as well as religion on their hands. The teaching of Latin, in which the liturgy was irrevocably enshrined, was their chief care, a fact which has left its imprint on English schools to the present day. The system which they evolved remained the basis of education in England nearly down to the time of the Reformation. The Song School and the Grammar School descended through the ages, the former the forerunner of the modern elementary school, the latter to pass through many vicissitudes, at one time bulking large as the highest institution of learning in the land, though gradually, after the foundation of the universities, finding its present level in the scheme of secondary education.

Even after the universities were well established, the grammar schools held their own under the ægis of the Chancellor of the cathedral, often endowed with local jurisdiction similar to that still maintained, in a measure, by Oxford and Cambridge. The faculty of Grammar has only recently been fully brought to light by patient delving into university archives. But the Master of Glomery, in the old days, boasted a degree *comme un autre,* while Bachelors of Glomery seem to have occupied the position of monitors, or perhaps pupil-teachers. The author suggests that the title may be connected with *baculus*—the rod with which refractory boys were "tunded"—which offers yet another derivation for a much-tried word. On many a long-cherished delusion Mr. Leach is pitilessly clarifying. The phrase "poor scholars" that finds a place in practically all mediæval school charters has often been used as evidence that the benefactions of ancient founders have been diverted from their original purpose to the uses of the rich—a theory which Mr. Leach effectually demolishes. And in this connection his discussion of the vexed question of "founder's kin" is illuminating in a piratical age. We are unwilling to close this brief notice without recommending the book, unreservedly, to all who are interested in the emergence of the English schools from the tutelage of the Church and the threatened blight of monasticism, and in their progress up to the point where they set forth on the unhampered career of usefulness which they are pursuing to-day.

Mr. Hector Fleischmann has packed his latest book, "Behind the Scenes in the Terror" (Brentano's; $4 net), with matter which, though in the main familiar to most of us, has certainly never been collected into one volume before. The effect is rather that of sitting at the "movies"—or better, perhaps, at an old-fashioned panorama—as the scenes and personages of the great Revolution are thrown on the screen, while the author lectures pleasantly on such as seem to require elucidation. Many pictures pass without comment, just as they were limned by contemporaries; others are punctuated, now by a mere observation, and again by ten minutes' disquisition. Possibly no better illustration of the writer's method can be taken than the portraits of Marat. Introduced by some account of "The People's Friend" in early life, his picture by Fabre d'Eglantine appears on the canvas, followed by that which the sitter himself contributed to his *Journal de la République Française;* then we listen to the stories of his mistress, Simonne Evrard, and his sister, Albertine, who lived on till 1841. Now and then we are rather taken aback by the lecturer's comment, and are reminded that Mr. Fleischmann, besides being a convinced Robespierrist, has also acquired other convictions in which we, at least, are unable to follow him. The figure of Madame Tallien evokes the pithy phrase: "My pen cannot adequately express my detestation of the odious strumpet to whom the Jacobin and Revolutionary idea was sacrificed." We hold no brief for Thérésia Cabarrus—whose part in the downfall of Robespierre, by the way, was purely accidental—but if the amorous longings of the *Conventionnel* shortened the interval before the inevitable "whiff of grape-shot" by ever so little, we are not inclined to complain. The picture of the poor little Dauphin vanishes with the note that, "imprisoned in the Temple, he was destined miraculously to escape from it and to reappear long years later under the name of Naundorff"—a cheering legend, doubtless, and perhaps not as yet disproved; it is proverbially difficult to prove a negative. And so we rise, blinking a little, and pass out into the work-a-day world, with the satisfied feeling that the show is a good one and worth the monev.

The war shows its influence both negatively and positively in the 1914 volume of the "New International Year Book" (Dodd, Mead). Much statistical information that ordinarily would have been given is lacking, because the prevalence of hostilities has interfered with sources of knowledge of trade and industrial conditions, so that tables of figures must often stop with 1913. The space provided by these gaps has been seized by the editors for matter relating to the war, and for fuller treatment than usual of the history of foreign nations. The main story of the conflict is told connectedly in an article called War of the Nations, written by Prof. Carlton Hayes. This is a clear, animated, and generally accurate account. It is supplemented by articles on Military Progress, Naval Progress, Relief for War Victims, etc. But the war does not occupy a disproportionate part of the volume. The usual care has been taken to make the "Year Book" as complete a survey as practicable of the noteworthy developments of the year. Archæology has not been neglected for Aeronautics, nor Trusts for Turkey. The progress of the arts of peace continues to fill the major portion of the pages. Printed on light paper and interspersed with excellent maps and pictures, the latest addition to this series of reference books maintains the combination of recent and trustworthy information with conciseness and readability that has made the publication one of the most useful of its kind.

George Eliot's definition of irony as a revelation of the unseen links which unite the greatest contrasts is recalled by the rude but subtle vignettes which constitute the "Spoon River Anthology" (Macmillan; $1.25 net), by Edgar Lee Masters. Each of the 220 bits of free verse of which it is composed is the epitaph of a man or woman of the Illinois village which Spoon River represents; each is the analysis or synthesis of that person's life, and they are so related one to another and so interwoven as to make a composite picture of the whole community. The sardonic spirit is chiefly expressed in the baring of hidden relationships and unsuspected motives. The form is the faintest sublimation of prose. Here and there is a happy phrase, an inversion, a thoughtful simile, a momentary attention to rhythm or assonance; but for the most part the language is curt, undistinguished, and unmelodious, and the author's use of broken lines seems an affectation—the converse of those rhymed verses written as prose which W. D. Howells so ridiculed a few years ago. Apparently Dunsany's or Stevenson's fables might better be written in poetic form. The best excuse for the masquerade is the concentration of both literal meaning and philosophic implication into each epitaph. The history of a prairie town, its futilities, sins, aspirations, and achievements, is set forth with comprehensiveness, and with a bleak, unsympathetic species of insight. The dead rise to reveal in thirty lines of passionate intensity the essential *motif* of their lives—among the men "the weak of will, the strong of arm, the clown, the boozer, the fighter," among the women "the tender heart, the simple soul, the loud, the proud, the happy one." A grave limitation is the book's inattention to the warmer and brighter side of village life—its humor, courage, and frank honesty; and yet out of its sordid materialism we have frequent glimpses of the flowering-up of high individual purpose. The author's knack of seizing on the significant in an individual is combined in "Archibald Higbie" with some expression of the personality of the village:

I loathed you, Spoon River. I tried to rise above you.
I was ashamed of you. I despised you
As the place of my nativity.
And there in Rome, among the artists,
Speaking Italian, speaking French,
I seemed to myself at times to be free
Of every trace of my origin.
I seemed to be reaching the heights of art
And to breathe the air that the masters breathed,
And to see the world with their eyes.
But still they'd pass my work and say:
"What are you driving at, my friend?
Sometimes the face looks like Apollo's,
At others it has a trace of Lincoln's."
There was no culture, you know, in Spoon River,
And I burned with shame and held my peace.
And what could I do, all covered over
And weighted down with Western soil,
Except aspire, and pray for another
Birth in the world, with all of Spoon River
Rooted out of my soul?

Inevitably there is much in the narrative-portraits that is mere rubbish.

Part XIV of Harper's "Assyrian and Babylonian Letters" (University of Chicago Press) has a pathetic interest, appearing as it does a few months after the death of Prof. Robert Francis Harper, who had devoted twenty-two years of untiring effort to the publication of the official correspondence of Assyrian kings contained in the great Royal Library, discovered by Layard in the ruins of Nineveh, of which some 30,000 fragments have been brought to the British Museum. Pro-

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fessor Harper's death on August 5, 1914, at the early age of fifty, leaves a serious gap in the ranks of American Orientalists, but it is fortunate that he was able to carry out his task practically to completion, for the present Part shows that the remaining letters in the collection are very fragmentarily preserved, with little hope of making much out of them. In all Professor Harper published during his lifetime 1,471 letters—a monument of industry that will insure the perpetuation of his name. The importance of this branch of Assyrian literature merits the special attention that Professor Harper during his career gave to it, for the correspondence in the form of letters to Assyrian kings of the seventh century B. C. ranges over the entire political and social activities prevailing at that time in Assyria. The present volume is indicative of this wide range, for it includes letters covering reports of officials on various matters of public interest and reports of astrologists regarding heavenly phenomena, statements of purchases made for the royal household, and even such personal matters as the King's health, the very first letter in the present Part being an interesting communication from a court physician who calls himself Arad-Nânâ, and from whom, it is interesting to note, letters occur also in former parts of the collection. Since Professor Harper began the publication of his series many scholars, both in this country and abroad, have studied the valuable material placed at their disposal, but a great deal of work still remains to be done. The letters are often very difficult to understand, and it is only through a prolonged study of large portions of this correspondence that light is thrown on the obscure passages to be found in almost every letter. It is to be hoped that some of Professor Harper's pupils, who had the privilege of studying Assyrian and Babylonian letters under him, will feel prompted to engage in the task of making a systematic study of the collection, dividing it into proper sections, and publishing translations and commentaries of all the important ones, and those sufficiently well preserved to give a connected sense.

An English translation, by H. J. Chaytor, of Dr. Oscar Jaeger's "The Teaching of History" (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.; $1 net), makes more available one of the best German manuals in its field. Dr. Jaeger's suggestions and criticisms, the outgrowth of fifty years of successful teaching experience, are a systematic and an authoritative exposition of the latest Prussian syllabus; and while the Prussian method cannot, of course, be exactly imitated in American schools, its carefully elaborated treatment of the entire secondary period is full of suggestiveness, notably on such topics as home study and reading, the conduct of a recitation, the utilization of local history and geography, and the handling of such controverted subjects as the Reformation. Prof. C. H. Firth, who contributes an introduction, gives an informing view of the rather chaotic conditions which attend the study and teaching of history in English schools.

The election of Prof. William A. Dunning as president of the American Historical Association in 1913 was happily made the occasion for the preparation, by a number of his former students, of a series of brief historical studies in his honor. After unavoidable delay, the volume, entitled "Studies in Southern History and Politics" (Columbia University Press), has now been published. Of the fifteen papers, each by a different author, all but four deal with subjects not earlier than the Civil War; the exceptions being a paper by Prof. Walter L. Fleming, on deportation and colonization as an attempted solution of the negro problem; one by Prof. Ulrich B. Phillips, on the literary movement for secession; another by Prof. Charles E. Merriam, on the political philosophy of Calhoun; and a fourth by Prof. David G. Thomas, on Southern political theories. Of the remaining papers, the most notable, so far as novelty of content goes, are those of Prof. M. L. Bonham, on the activities of French consuls in the Confederate States; of Dr. Sidney D. Brummer, on the judicial interpretation of the Confederate Constitution; and of Prof. William K. Boyd, on the history of education in the South since 1865. The collection as a whole is worthy both of the authors and of their gracious purpose.

Dr. Kirsopp Lake, Professor of Early Christian Literature in Leiden formerly, now happily in Harvard, makes plain to the practical American Christian, in his recent volume entitled "The Stewardship of Faith" (Putnam; $1.50 net), that he has more than an academic interest in the field in which he is a recognized expert. Like all good modernists, he is interested in conserving for present-day religion the values of the Christian heritage. Convinced that early Christianity maintained a higher standard of life than that of its environment, and that, if the Church is to retain its leadership, it must not only keep clear-sighted and steady the vision of a better world, but also express its religious and moral spirit in the language of to-day, he undertakes a sketch of the growth of early Christianity in the light of its environment with a view to illustrating and confirming his conviction. With a practiced hand and the sure touch of insight, the author interprets the salient features of the Christian movement—the proclamation of Jesus in reference to the speedy coming of the Kingdom of God, his call to repentance, and his world-renouncing ethic; the belief of the primitive Jewish Christians that the Messiah was Jesus and the hope of salvation in the near future when the Lord comes; the transformation of this message into a message for Gentiles with Jesus as the Lord of a pneumatic community and with salvation conceived as a virtually present attainment, faith being the condition and the rites of the new cult the means; the conflict of Christianity with heathenism and the ethical supremacy of the former; the conflict with Gnosticism in which orthodox Christianity refused either to break from its Jewish traditions and literature, or to accept the fundamental dualism of the persistent speculation; and finally the conflict with average Christianity which, being uninstructed, failed to do justice to the two elements that had entered into the heritage of Christianity, religious experience and a sense for historic facts, two elements, however, which did find a workable synthesis in the Christology of Athanasius as expressed in the subtle language of his day. Impatient alike with those who would allegorize or symbolize the formulations of the past and with those who would attempt restatement by using the old phraseology in a new sense, Professor Lake touches candidly and sympathetically, a few points at which, he believes, there must be fresh statements of the old convictions, a readjustment of the scope and method of the ministry of the Church, and a widening of the ethical outlook. Though the lectures on which the volume is based were intended primarily for the general public, they bristle with suggestions which the expert can not afford to neglect.

Says John Adams, of the University of London, speaking of a lecture by Sir Walter Raleigh, "I do not think I ever heard a more useful lecture, and yet none of the audience went away with many new facts." Much the same may be said of Professor Adams's "Making the Most of One's Mind" (Doran; $1), which is a "guide to all students" in such matters as study and reading, taking notes, using books of reference, writing essays, and answering questions in examination. (A slight foreignness about some of his suggestions reminds us that he is addressing English students, who in matters of study are thrown more upon their own responsibility.) At first glance, Mr. Adams is merely obvious and prosy, but read in the spirit of leisure he becomes sensible and interesting. This is partly because he writes from the standpoint of a well-stored mind, partly because he has clearly in mind the point of view of the student, but partly also because he can write of familiar things without that pseudo-scientific pedantry which characterizes most of the educational literature in America.

As an example of this we may cite Frances M. Morehouse on "The Discipline of the School" (Heath; $1.25). Much that Miss Morehouse has to say is sensible (though much could also be omitted), and occasionally she betrays a sense of humor. But why, for example, the advisability of treating each child in the schoolroom according to his merits has to be based upon M. Saleilles's learned discussion of "The Individualization of Punishment" (in the administration of criminal law) is rather hard to see. In the schoolroom, where "individualization" is relatively practicable and obvious, one would expect to find arguments nearer home.

William Elliot Griffis's "Millard Fillmore" (Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church; $2) is a eulogistic sketch of a President who has long needed a biographer. The material for such a work is extensive, comprising, besides the recently edited "Fillmore Papers," published by the Buffalo Historical Society, some forty manuscript volumes of correspondence, and a wealth of newspapers and public documents. The plea which Mr. Griffis makes, with great justice, for a more generous recognition of Fillmore's good qualities, and of his important part in many praiseworthy achievements, would carry more weight, we think, had it not been phrased in so flamboyant a style, or urged with quite so much apparent zeal to make Fillmore out a really great man. A new array of facts, whether the facts be new or only unfamiliar, may well contribute to a better understanding of a man's career as a whole; but it does not necessarily alter greatly the ultimate judgment regarding the portion of his public career in which he was most conspicuous. What Mr. Griffis has to say will hardly, we think, change the conception of Fillmore's presidency which historians, and, to a considerable extent, his contemporaries, formed of it. It is, however, worth while to have Fillmore recalled to us as a State legislator who brought about, in

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New York, the abolition of religious qualifications for test oaths, and of imprisonment for debt; as a Vice-President to whom the Senate owed new rules of procedure; and as a President who dealt skilfully with filibusters, urged cheap postage and international copyright, worked for the beautifying of the national capital, and opened the door of Japan. It was Fillmore's misfortune that the years of his Presidency fell in a period when the slavery controversy, prevailing for the moment over everything else, formed as it were an interlude in the programme of national development and expansion; and that events over which he had little control made him appear officially as a friend of slavery, when in fact he was not such.

The *Geographical Journal* for May contains an account by Capt. H. A. Edwards of exploration work in the Amazon Basin to determine the boundary between Bolivia and Brazil. The longitude of the camping-places in this region of almost impenetrable forest was calculated by means of wireless telegraphy. Time signals were sent nightly at a specified time from Porto Velho on the River Madeira. Of present interest is the clear and comprehensive description of the military divisions of the world by Dr. Vaughan Cornish. The account of a journey in northern Persia, by Col. Molesworth Sykes, contains much information in regard to the people and the ancient ruins of a little-known country.

Science

Fr. M. Selga, S.J., writing from the Lick Observatory, Mount Hamilton, gives an interesting account of the Ebro Observatory, Tortosa, Spain, which is situated in the southern part of Cataluña, to the north of the old kingdom of Valencia, near the mouth of the Ebro River, at a distance of about twenty kilometres from the sea. The founder and present director of the Observatory is the Rev. Richard Cirera, S.J. His visit to the principal observatories of France, Belgium, England, Germany, Austria, and Italy, and the scientific suggestions of prominent continental astronomers, culminated in the establishment of this astrophysical observatory at Tortosa, the principal object of which is to investigate the relation between solar activity and the atmospheric and magnetic variations of our planet. The observatory is private in character, and not connected with any state college or university; and Mr. Pedro Gil de Mora is its greatest benefactor. The principal instruments of the observatory have been in regular use since 1905, and the Tortosa observations of the solar eclipse in that year have proved of high value to solar research. Lately an appropriation was passed by both houses to defray expense of the publications of the observatory. The scientific activities of the observatory comprise four departments: astronomy, terrestrial magnetism, atmospheric electricity, and meteorology. A specialist is in charge of each department. Astronomical observations at Tortosa are confined solely to the sun, and the equipment was designed with this object in view. Photographs of the sun are taken on every available day, with the photographic equatorial. Flocculi or calcium vapors in the sun's chromosphere are studied by means of an Evershed spectroheliograph. An excellent spectrogoniometer of four prisms in connection with a coelostat affords an opportunity of determining the radial velocities of different vapors of the solar atmosphere. The magnetic observations consist in determining absolute values of the intensity and direction of the earth's magnetic field and the variation of its intensity. A careful geologic and petrographic study of the region surrounding the observatory was made before the site of the magnetic pavilion was chosen. Wood was the only material of construction: the locks, latches, hinges, keys, screws, and all metallic pieces are copper, and the supporting piers stone and marble.

The favorable site of the observatory, and the effectiveness of its apparatus, led the Spanish Government to request the director that the Ebro observatory be made a central magnetic station in constructing the magnetic chart of Spain. It is intended to combine the magnetic observations at Tortosa with those already made at San Fernando and Lisbon; and comparison of the similar observations at Val Joyeux, near Paris, with those of Tortosa will eventually provide a value of the secular variation corresponding to the south of France. In the electric section, the ions, the atmospheric potential, Hertz waves, and telluric currents are the objects of investigation. The study of atmospheric ions can be accomplished by finding either relative values that give a vague idea of the ionization of the air, or absolute values of the conductivity and of its elements. Absolute measures of atmospheric potential are made at an isolated station at some distance from the observatory, in order that they may be free from the effect of local perturbations produced by buildings and surrounding trees. When there is an electrical disturbance in the atmosphere, it becomes the source of electro-magnetic waves similar to those produced in wireless telegraphy, and these may be detected and recorded by special apparatus similar to that used as a receiver for ordinary waves in wireless telegraphy. This instrument is known as a ceraunograph; and the Tortosa ceraunograph gives a continuous record of electric storms occurring in the neighborhood of or within a certain distance from the Ebro valley. For the observation of telluric currents, the Ebro observatory runs a 1,420-metre line, west-east, to El Colegio Maximo; and another, north-south, to a point 1,280 metres distant from the observatory, the angle between the two lines being 87 degrees towards the east. The entrance wires are joined to two Despretz and D'Arsonval galvanometers, and all deviations are recorded on the photographic registering apparatus. The seismological equipment consists of a Vicentini seismograph and two Grablowitz pendulums.

Four memoirs have been published by the staff of the observatory. In the first the observatory was introduced to the astronomical world, its instruments described, its programme outlined, and observations of the solar eclipse of August 30, 1905, made public. In the second the Rev. Mariano Balcells, S.J., gives a detailed description of the astronomical instruments of the solar department, and outlines the problems of solar research. The author came to America to work under the direction of the inventor of the spectroheliograph, and was taking several courses in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology when he died. E. Merveille and J. García Mollá are credited with a description of the instruments and an exposition of the problems of the magnetic and electric departments. Since 1910, the observatory has issued a regular monthly bulletin, printed in two languages, Spanish and French, giving the numerical data of observations in heliophysics, meteorology, and geophysics. The Ebro observatory also publishes *Iberica*. What the *Scientific American* is for Americans, *Cosmos* for the French, and *Nature* for the English, *Iberica* is for the Spaniard. The necessity of a weekly scientific magazine, well illustrated and with up-to-date articles, was long felt by Spanish-speaking people, and the new periodical amply supplies this need, copies of *Iberica* already reaching the provinces of Spain and all the South American republics.

"The Progress of Eugenics" (Funk & Wagnalls; $1.50 net), Dr. C. W. Saleeby's second book on this subject, though more sketchy, is perhaps better than his "Parenthood and Race-Culture" of 1909. In the present volume, a first part includes a readable description of the principles concerned; the second part deals with the methods in use for increasing knowledge regarding eugenics; in Part III the author tells us how worthy parenthood is to be encouraged (positive eugenics), how unworthy parenthood is to be discouraged (negative eugenics), and what he means by racial poisons which may "originate degeneracy in healthy stocks"; in Part IV he concludes that the outlook for the future of the science is promising; and, in an appendix, he reprints from the *Pall Mall Gazette* the obituary notice he wrote of Francis Galton, the founder of the science. The author is an enthusiastic eugenist, and though more temperate in his statements than formerly, he still gives evidences of a cocksureness one would prefer to miss in a treatise on a subject about which there is as yet plenty of room for differences of opinion. The book will, however, be found decidedly interesting, even by those who are well informed regarding the subject and who read critically, and it will put the inquiring but less informed reader more quickly in touch with the many sides of the eugenic movement than any other current volume of which we know.

Sir Bamfylde Fuller's "Life and Human Nature" (Longmans; $3 net) deals with the "Attributes of Life," including Sensation and Reaction, Instinct, Memory, Habit, Imitation, Consciousness, and Volition; with the "Constraining Influences" of Life, such as Race, Environment, and Culture; and with "Human Achievements" under the headings of Material Progress, Social Progress, Modern Economics, and Modern Politics—truly a large undertaking, especially for one who makes no claim to special knowledge of the underlying sciences and who has spent a large part of his lifetime in helping England to govern India! The interest of the book, it seems to us, lies in the synthesis which has been arrived at by an intelligent layman who has found recreation in reading widely the works of modern psychologists, geneticists, ethnologists, and philosophers. Though the book has obviously been made entirely "at the green table," we believe that many will find pleasure in its perusal, and the volume will be serviceable if it does no more than lead its readers to study for themselves the sources on which the author has depended and to which he refers in the preface to his volume.

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Drama and Music

INTIMATE STUDIES OF CHARACTER.

Possession and Other One-Act Plays. By George Middleton. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.35 net.

This latest collection of one-act plays by George Middleton shows growing facility in workmanship, in this difficult and attractive form. Intimate studies of character, they reveal keen intuition in human analysis as well as a strong sense of dramatic situation. All of them have distinctive merit, both literary and inventive, but some of them would be unsuitable in the theatre, except before a very special audience. The least controversial among them are "The Groove" and "The Black Tie." The first is a simple little story of purely altruistic devotion, prettily and sympathetically told. An elder sister, who has passed all the best years of her youth in waiting upon her mother, sees a chance of escape from the hopeless rut into which she has fallen, in the return of her much younger sister from abroad. Then she discovers that the latter is in love with a youth, who wishes to marry her at once and carry her off to Brazil. One must remain with the mother, so, after a brief struggle, the elder sister abandons her cherished ambition, and cheerfully resumes her old burden. It is a pathetic sketch, with no bitterness, of one of the many unsuspected tragedies of everyday life. The second, equally simple, touches upon the color question. It portrays the embarrassment of a philanthropic couple who find that the little son of their mulatto maid will not be allowed to march with their own daughter among the white children in a Sunday-school parade. It is a courageous parable, but savors too much of the special instance to avail greatly against rooted prejudice.

In "Possession," which gives its title to the volume, Mr. Middleton attacks an old and difficult thesis with boldness and eloquence but somewhat unconvincing philosophy. Katrine Banning, a rich woman, whose husband, immersed in business, has left her largely to her own frivolous resources, has taken a lover, more for amusement than for passion, and has been divorced. Lack of a worthy object in life is her sole excuse for her acknowledged infidelity. She returns to her old home, surreptitiously, to kidnap her little daughter, who has been awarded to her husband by the court, and is caught by Banning. Then follows a long scene, in which she pleads her natural right in the part possession of her own progeny, and maintains that her bitter experience has not only changed and developed her character, but made her more capable of properly discharging the maternal duties of which the child stands so much in need. In the end, Banning, softening, agrees that the child shall remain in her charge at regular intervals. The case for the mother is stated with ingenious plausibility and some touching sentiment, but the basic argument, that the woman who has broken faith may be the more trustworthy, is not conclusive. A social policy established upon such a precedent would be full of obvious perils.

In "Circles" the problem is virtually reversed, with some additional hereditary complications. The heroine, Ida Lawson, married to escape the frigid atmosphere in the house of her parents, Professor and Mrs. Owen, and found herself chained to an indifferent and unfaithful husband. So, at the rise of the curtain, she returns home and announces that she has left him for good. In the ensuing discussion, written with admirable compactness and subtlety, she reviews her life, convicts her parents of their own unhappiness and responsibility, proclaims her perfect justification, and her determination to keep her child and guard her against a wreck of life similar to her own. Then the old mother asks, "How do you know that your child will not some day blame you for leaving your husband, as you have blamed me for not leaving mine?" To this question Ida can find no answer. Her confidence in the impregnability of her attitude is shaken, and the curtain falls upon her distress and perplexity. With her mother there is prospect of reconciliation, but the cynical and phlegmatic old professor mutters, "Huh! These women!"

In "A Good Woman" the issue is clearer and the climax more definite and effective. Cora Warren, for love, has joined her fortunes with Hal Merrill, married to a woman with whom life is impossible. He is a writer, who has accumulated evidence of the most damning kind against a corrupt boss. His honor and subsistence depend upon his giving it in court. The boss warns him that if he does so, his relations with Cora, whose reputation hitherto has been flawless, shall be exposed. Sooner than suffer her to be stricken, Merrill, agonized, resolves to keep silence and accept disgrace and ruin. But Cora is of stronger stuff. She compels her lover to testify, holding that pure love is its own justification, and pledges herself to appear as witness to the boss's effort to blackmail them both. Here, of course, there can be no question of her pointing out the plain path of honor and duty, and the play legitimately reaches a strong and wholesome dramatic climax. But it does not prove the wisdom or expediency of good women appropriating disagreeable women's husbands.

In "The Unborn," a loving wife, contrary to her husband's desire, shrinks from the responsibilities of motherhood, fearing, apparently, that a child might rob her of part of the father's affection. She is converted by the spectacle of a lonely woman's craving for the motherhood that has been denied her. The conceit is adroitly and tenderly handled, but the premises are somewhat forced and fantastic. They have the air of having been invented to fit a particular proposition, which clearly has no general application. All the plays dealing with the marriage relation are written with sincerity and tact and without the least approach to anything like vulgar sensationalism. They are, as they profess to be, conscientious and purposeful studies of the internal and external causes of human action, and have a decided value as artistic examples of intimate social drama. What they lack is a foundation of a broad and sane human philosophy, a clearer comprehension of the hard facts of actual life. In the special instance Mr. Middleton has quoted there is much to be said in defence of the revolting women, but to precedents and consequences he pays no heed.

J. R. T.

Fritz Kreisler's demonstration of how his keen musical ear proved of service to the Austrian artillery officers is one of the many interesting details in his little book, "Four Weeks in the Trenches" (Houghton Mifflin Co.; $1). After a brief experience on the battle-field he was able to determine by the sound the exact place where a shell coming from the opposing batteries was reaching its acme, and this enabled him to give to the Austrian batteries the almost exact range of the Russian guns. He found that the moral effect of the thundering of his own army's artillery was most extraordinary: "Many of us thought that we never heard any more welcome sound than the deep roaring and crashing that started in our rear. It quickly helped to disperse the nervousness caused by the first entering into battle, and to restore self-control and confidence." He soon became accustomed to seeing death next to him, and had several narrow escapes; one of them, which compelled him to return to Vienna in a hospital train, is narrated in detail. He describes "the exultation of the battle," and comments on the spirit of retreating troops, so "vastly different from that shown by an advancing army." He was struck by the "extraordinary lack of hatred" between the fighting men, and gives some amusing instances of *camaraderie* between the soldiers of the opposing armies. Another thing which surprised him was that men from the cities, who had done little physical work, stood the hardships better than the sturdy and to all appearances stronger peasants.

Is it true that *silent musae inter arma?* Not according to Prof. Dr. Friedländer. He is the leading authority on the history of German song, and in a recent lecture he made the statement that no fewer than a million and a half war poems were made public during the first three months of the present conflict! Beginning with the time of the old Romans, when the singing of the German warriors inspired terror in the enemy, Professor Friedländer sketched the growth of patriotic and military song to the present day, emphasizing the fact that the music usually counts for more than the words, of which the singers often know only the first stanza. He dwelt on the fact that, with very few exceptions, the great composers did not at any time create the great patriotic songs. He was glad to note that the war had averted the impending danger of the soldiers' singing being lowered in standard by the adoption of vaudeville trash; and he declared that, unlike the songs of the enemies, the German soldiers' songs were free from hate, contempt, and underestimation of the enemy's prowess, the chief subjects being home, farewell, sweetheart, parents, peace.

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Finance

THE TEST OF A "WAR CRISIS."

The strength of the stock market after the President sent his note to Germany, and during the period of grave doubt as to what Berlin's response would be, has marked an interesting situation. It made it difficult, to many people, to be sure exactly what impression or expectation the Stock Exchange was reflecting. In the few days after the news of the sinking of the Lusitania arrived, it was not possible to say how far the crash on the Stock Exchange resulted solely from apprehension as to the international consequences, and how far it represented the breakdown of an extravagant speculation which much less important outside news might equally have undermined. This much, however, was plain on the face of things—that while prices had fallen back decidedly from the heights reached at the climax of April's speculative enthusiasm, they remained quite as far above the level at which they stood in the earlier weeks of 1915.

Whatever else was to be inferred from the immediate financial sequel to the clash with Germany, the course of the markets gave the strongest testimony to an economic position, in this country, so sound that even the imminent chance of war had failed to shake it. The contrast with what happened as a sequel to the brief and far less menacing diplomatic clash with England, over Cleveland's "Venezuela message" of December, 1895, is interesting. It was not only that Stock Exchange prices swept downward at a panicky rate. Call money rose to 100 per cent. on Wall Street; in spite of which, the rate of exchange on London went to the highest normal level, a heavy gold export movement began, $16,000,000 gold was withdrawn from the United States Treasury and a crumbling away of the unstable structure of business activity ensued. This happened although actual war with England was known within a week to be out of the question. The financial situation itself was vulnerable.

Mr. Wilson's warning to Germany, that it need not "expect the Government of the United States to omit any word or act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States," was followed, indeed, by a day of severe decline on the Stock Exchange. But money rates did not rise on Wall Street; they actually declined. So far from anything like a run on bank deposits or a hoarding of gold occurring in New York, the next two weekly bank statements at New York showed $18,000,000 increase in the surplus and a gain of $16,000,000 cash, of which fully half was gold. Instead of a movement of the foreign exchanges against this country, as in 1895, the rate on the great European markets moved so heavily in our favor, during the fortnight after the Lusitania was sunk, that even exchange on London, touching $4.78 to the pound sterling, went to a figure lower than any previously reached in the whole war period.

This decline in New York exchange on London and Paris has been of a character so extraordinary as to call for special explanation. Not the least remarkable aspect of it is that the week's heavy break occurred in the face of large gold shipments to New York from both France and England, of a decrease in this country's weekly excess of merchandise exports over imports, and of easier money rates and larger surplus bank reserves in Wall Street.

The familiar explanation, that the markets of the Allies are finding it troublesome to finance their huge purchases of grain and war munitions in this country, goes a certain distance. Even up to the close of March, the excess of our merchandise exports to England since June, which was $267,000,000 in 1914, has been $442,000,000 this present fiscal year, while the similar balance against France has been $163,000,000, as against only $18,000,000. These individual balances, moreover, have greater effect on exchange rates under present conditions, when London is handicapped from adjusting the account with America through a large balance on the opposite side, in its account with other nations.

Nevertheless, such expansion of our export surplus has occurred in other years, and with no such abnormal rates of foreign exchange. To some extent, the great weakness of English and French exchange must reflect an unfavorable financial position in those countries—especially in France, whose international burdens London has assumed. But there are influences at work, beyond even this. It is difficult to doubt that the movement of capital from foreign markets to New York, for safe keeping or profitable use, has been increasing, and it is growing more evident that Europe's reserve of American securities, available for immediate sale, has been very much smaller than had been imagined.

Some recent attempts to ascertain the volume of such holdings have, indeed, suggested that the estimates current six or eight months ago were greatly exaggerated. When to these considerations it is added that the war munitions, for which orders were largely placed a very short time ago, have hardly begun to move out to Europe in full quantity, and that a foreign exchange market discounts future conditions as well as reflects the present, the reason for the continued movement of that market in our favor should be plain.

What is to be the outcome—in our own financial position, in Europe's, or on the market for exchange? It will perhaps be governed in some degree by this country's future attitude towards Germany. But on the simple basis of natural readjustment of international accounts, the answer is, that the New York market will finance on an increasing scale, presumably through short-term advances of capital, the requirements of the European Powers. We shall undoubtedly begin by granting a large credit to London, whereby both English and French exchange rates will at least be regulated. Next, our market is likely gradually, but eventually in very substantial amount, to proceed in financing the requirements of other neutral states, and thereby to stimulate our trade relations with those countries. In other words, what we seem to have ahead of us is the affirming and securing of New York's new position as, for the present and for some time to come, the central money market of the world.

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Churchill, W. A Far Country. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Hornblow, A. The Watch-Dog. Dillingham. $1.25 net.
Hughes, R. Empty Pockets. Harper. $1.35 net.
Jones, D. E. Time O'Day. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.
Orczy, Baroness. Bride of the Plains. Doran. $1.35 net.
Raine, W. M. The Highgrader. Dillingham. $1.25 net.
Smith, Mrs. C. Cranberry Cove Stories. Boston: Badger. $1 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Ballou, F. W. The Appointment of Teachers in Cities. Vol. II. Harvard University Press.
Esenwein, J. B. and Carnagey, D. The Art of Public Speaking. Springfield, Mass.: The Home Correspondence School. $1.75.
Gundelfinger, G. F. Ten Years at Yale. The Shakespeare Press. $1 net.
Hamilton, F. Lodestar and Compass. The Abingdon Press. $1 net.
McMahon, J. A. The House that Junk Built. Duffield. $1.25 net.
Representative Phi Beta Kappa Orations. Houghton Mifflin. $3 net.
The American Books Series: The American College. The Indian To-day. American Literature. Municipal Freedom. The American Navy. Doubleday, Page & Co. 60 cents net each.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Freuder, S. A Missionary's Return to Judaism. New York: The Sinai Publishing Co.
Haas, J. A. W. Trends of Thought and Christian Truth. Boston: Badger. $1.50 net.
Jefferson, C. E. Christianity and International Peace. Crowell. $1.25 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Ford, H. J. The Natural History of the State. Princeton University Press. $1 net.
Hammond, B. E. Bodies Politic and their Governments. Cambridge University Press. 10s. 6d. net.
Klein, H. H. Bankrupting a Great City. New York: Henry H. Klein. 75 cents.
Nearing, S. Income. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Roman, F. W. The Industrial and Commercial Schools of the United States and Germany. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Young, J. T. The New American Government and its Work. Macmillan. $2.25 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Burroughs, J. The Breath of Life. Houghton Mifflin. $1.15 net.
Carus, P. Goethe. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co. $3 net.
Dall, W. H. Spencer Fullerton Baird. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $3.50 net.
Dunn, Robert. Five Fronts. Dodd, Mead. $1.25 net.
Edmonds, F. S. Ulysses S. Grant. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.
Gray, W. F. The Poets Laureate of England. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Hough, W. The Hopi Indians. Cedar Rapids, Iowa: The Torch Press. $1 net.
Hueffer, F. M. When Blood Is Their Argument. Doran. $1 net.

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Paxson, F. L. The New Nation. (Riverside History of the United States.) Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Root, J. C. Nathan Hale. (True stories of Great Americans.) Macmillan. 50 cents.
Schoonmaker, E. D. The World Storm and Beyond. Century. $2 net.
Sladen, D. Twenty Years of My Life. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Stewart, C. W. The Stars and Stripes. Boston: Boylston Pub. Co.
Watson, G. L. de St.M. The Story of Napoleon's Death-Mask. Lane. $2 net.

POETRY.

Boyd, Jackson. The Unveiling. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Johnson, F. Visions of the Dusk. Privately printed.

SCIENCE.

Albaugh, B. F. The Gardenette or the City Backyard Gardening. Cincinnati, Ohio: Stewart & Kidd Co.
Bailey, L. H. Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture. Vol. III. F-K. Macmillan. $6 net.
Bean, W. J. Trees and Shrubs Hardy in the British Isles. Dutton. Vols. I and II. $15 net.
Meadowcroft, W. H. A-B-C of Electricity. Harper. 50 cents net.
Mind and Health Series: Sleep and Sleeplessness. The Meaning of Dreams. Human Motives. Boston: Little, Brown. $1 net each.

ART.

The Studio Year Book of Decorative Art. Lane. $3 net.

JUVENILE.

Lane, M. A. L. The Arabian Nights' Entertainments. Boston: Ginn. 50 cents.
Stickney, J. H. Æsop's Fables. Boston: Ginn. 40 cents.

TEXTBOOKS.

Ballard, P. B. Handwork as an Educational Medium. Macmillan. $1 net.
Bishop, M. L., and McKinlay, F. Deutsche Grammatik. Heath. 90 cents.
Gronow, A. T. Für kleine Leute. Boston: Ginn. 60 cents.
Harriman, F. G. Ordoneau's Les Boulinard. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Heath. 30 cents.
Reeve, W. D. and Schorling, R. A Review of High-School Mathematics. University of Chicago Press.

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